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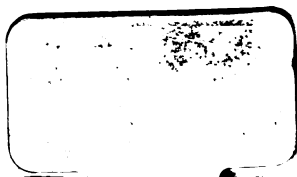
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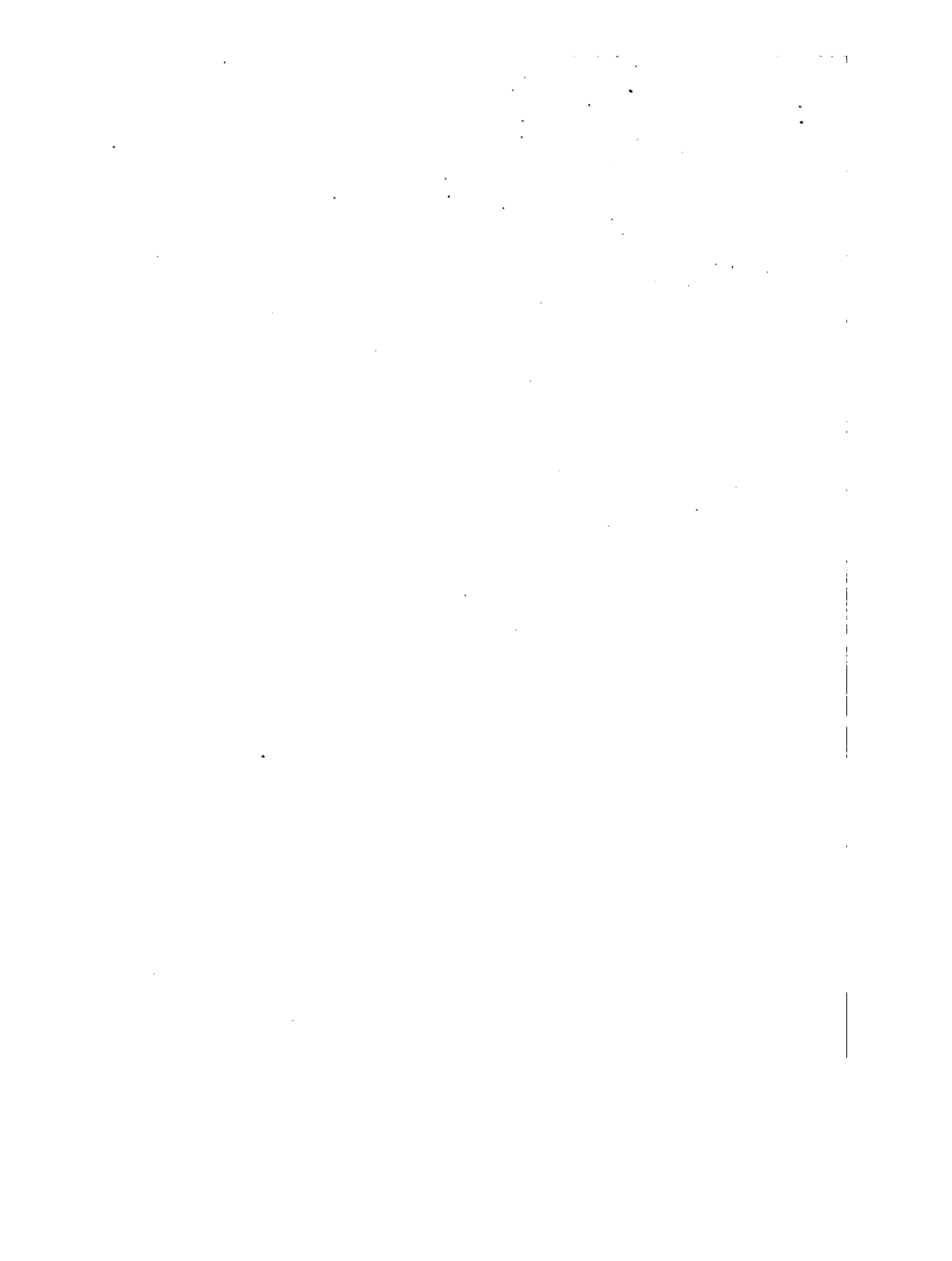
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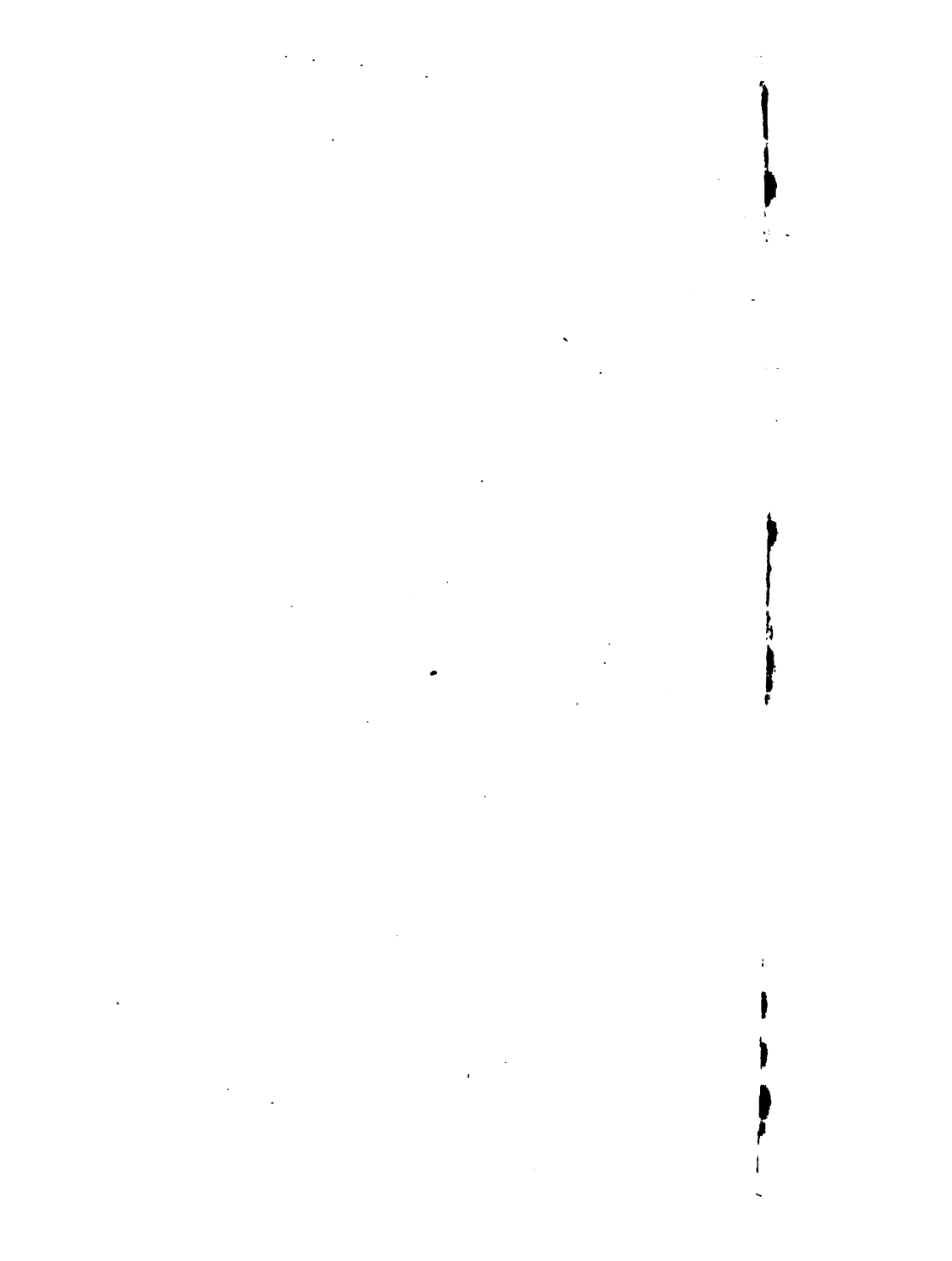
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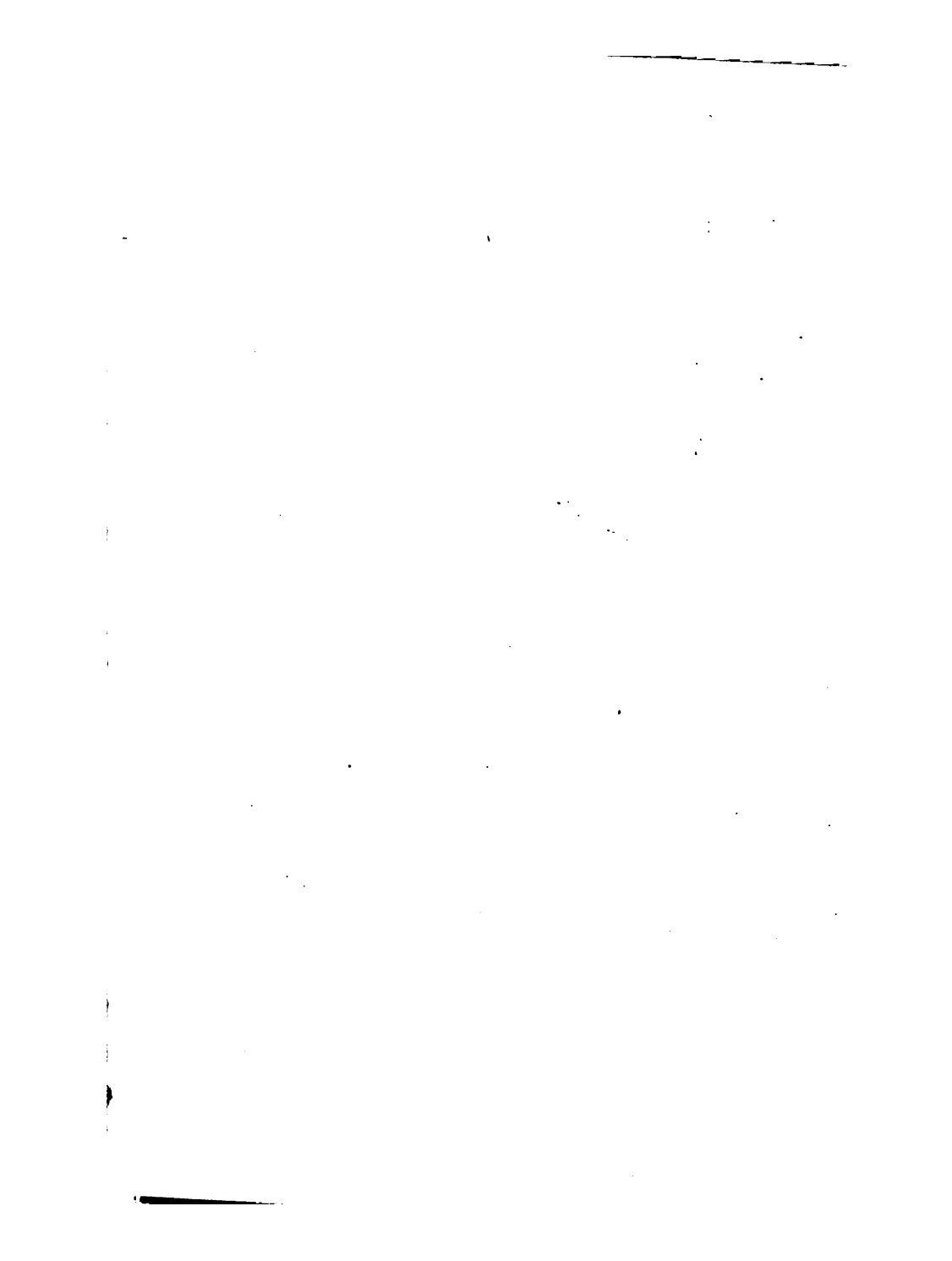






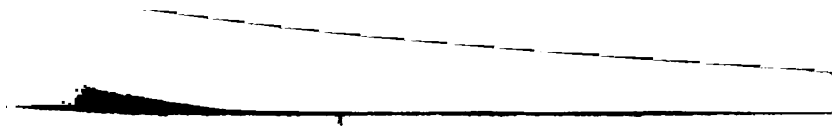
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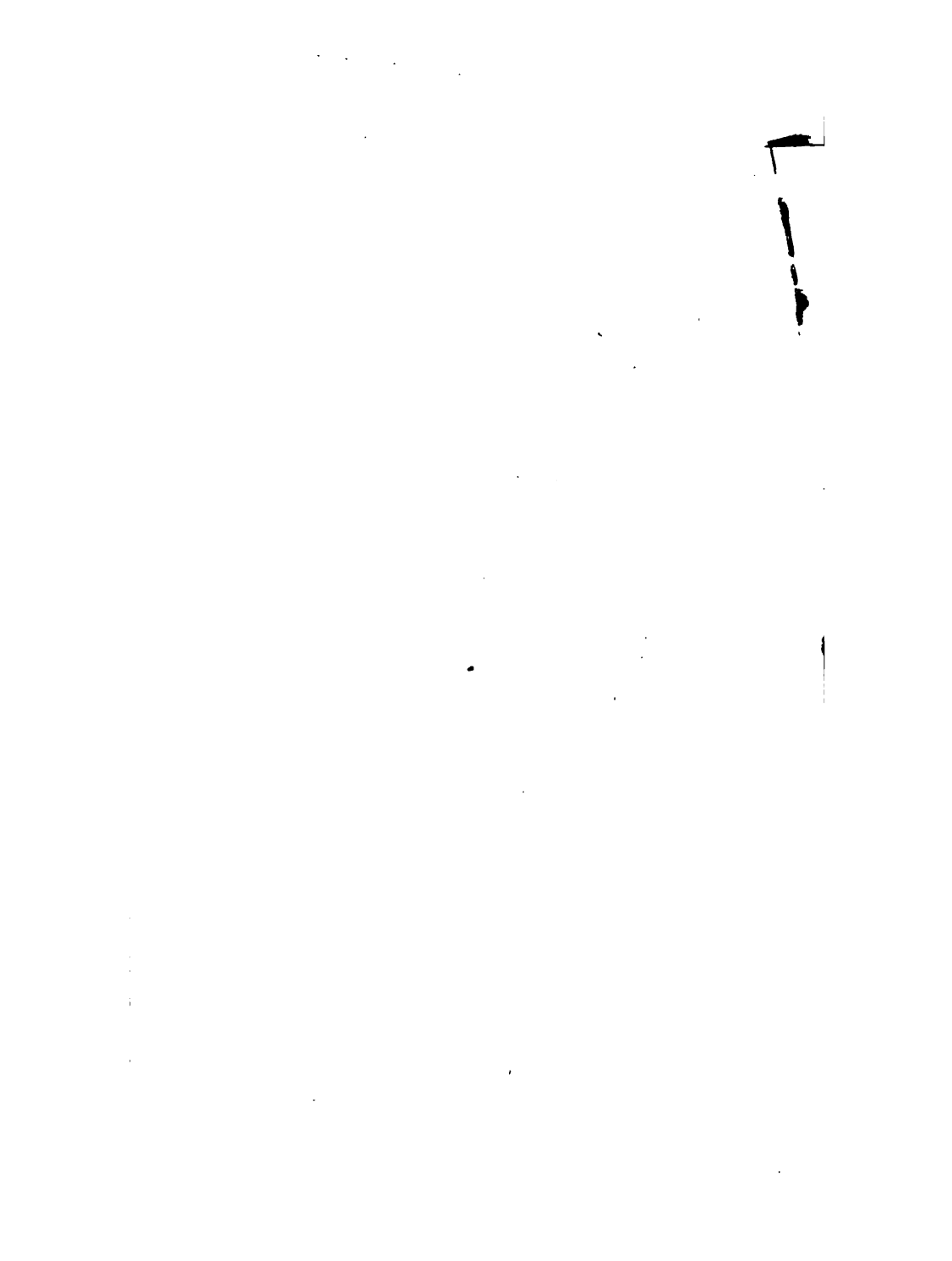


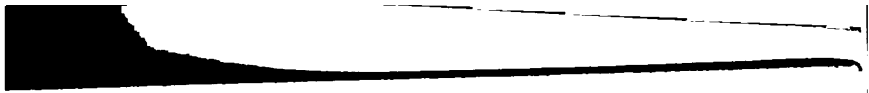


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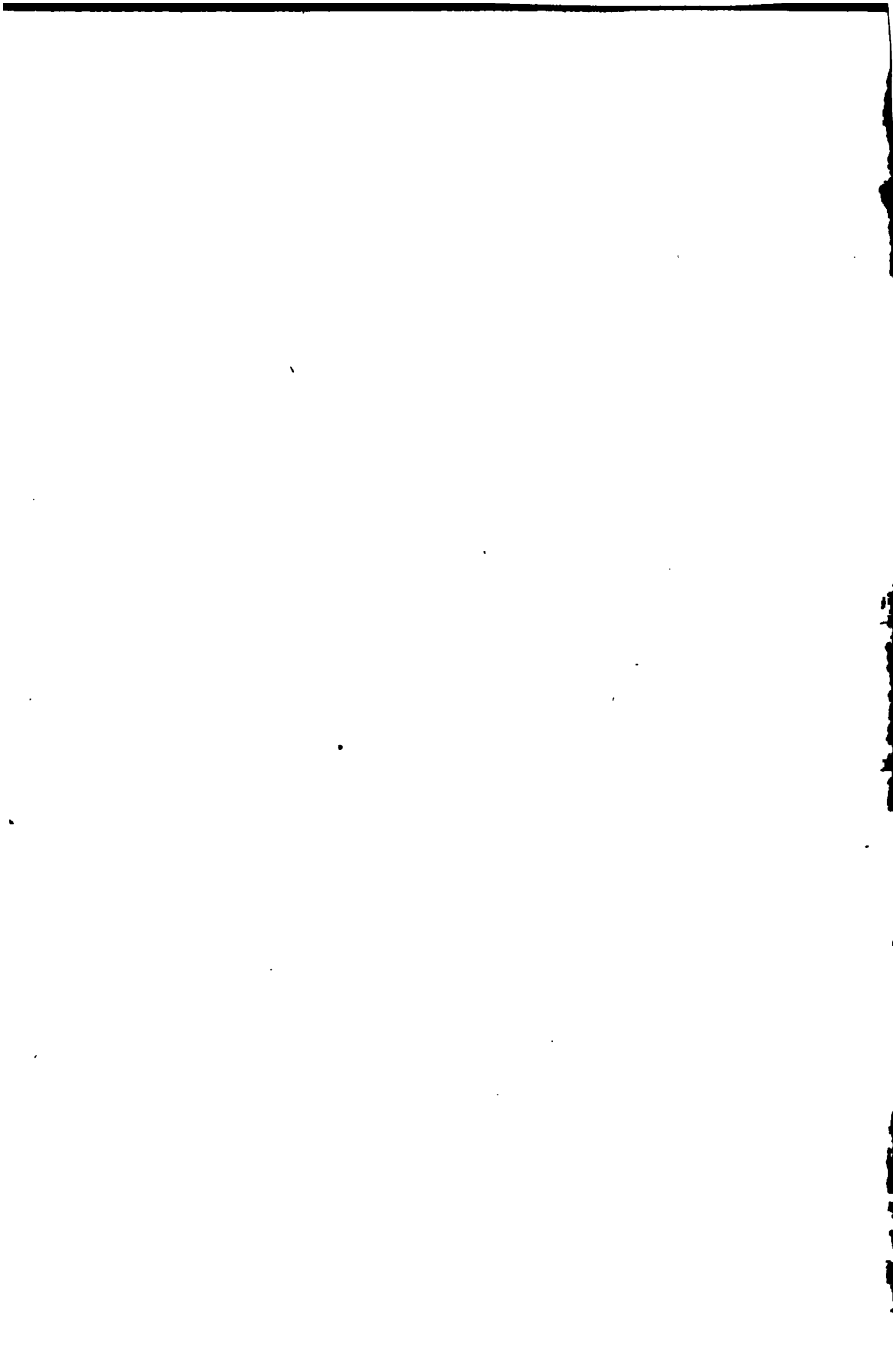






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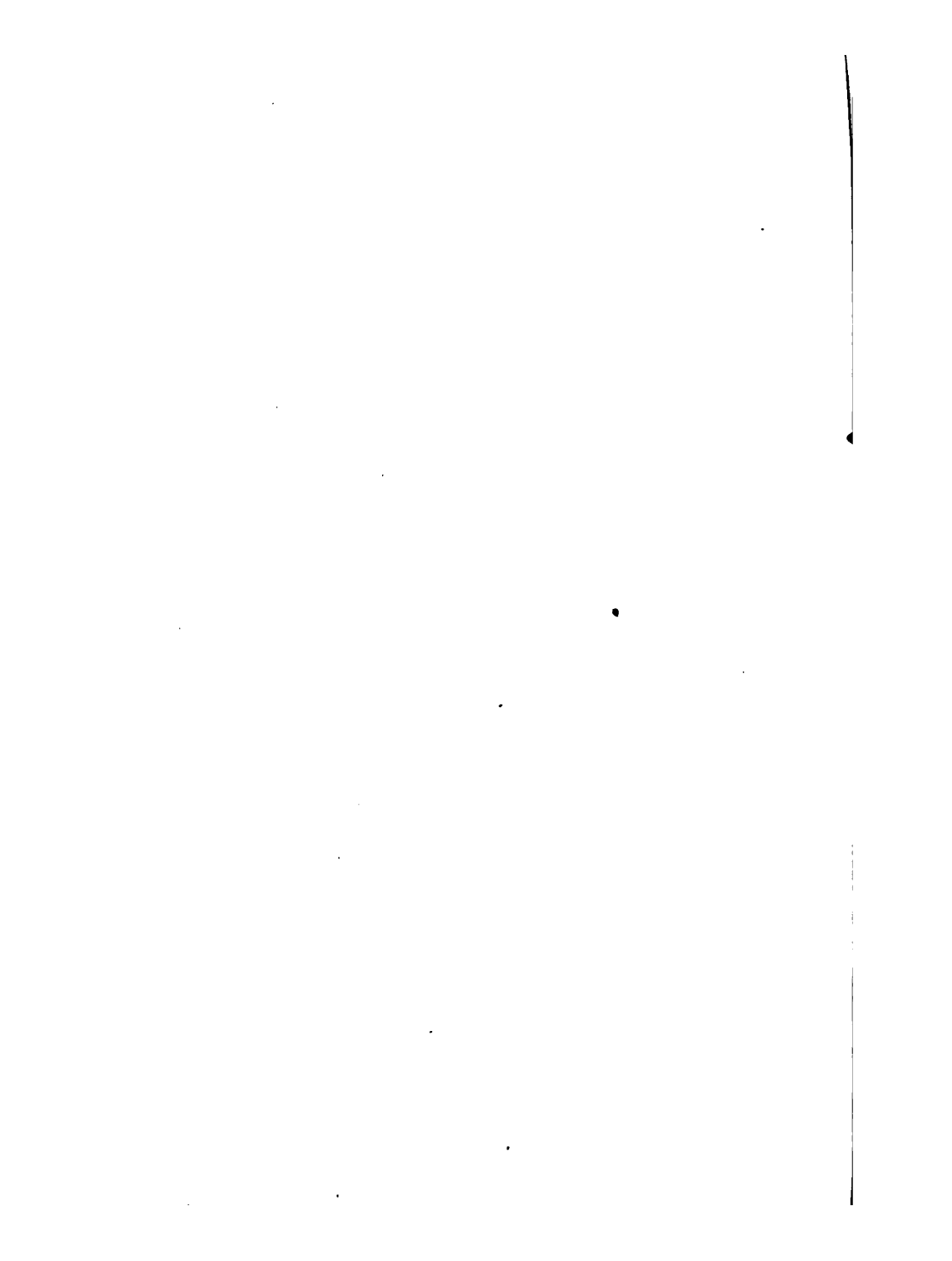
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THIS little book makes no claim to originality. It has been compiled from many and varied sources, for the use of my pupils, who, while under my roof had not time to peruse large works on Ancient History, and yet earnestly desired an outline of the subject, which might afterwards be filled in, by the 'gradual perusal of standard books. It contains the *notes* only of my talks with them on the history of these old times.

I have never been able to find a work which answered my purpose, viz.—a Sketch of Ancient History, divided into Periods, any one of which could be taken up and studied apart from the others; a work containing also an outline of the Middle Ages, within the compass of a single volume. This must be my apology for offering to the public a book with no pretensions to literary merit, and intended only as a stepping-stone to the works of abler writers.

WEST HEATH,  
HAM COMMON,  
RICHMOND, SURREY,  
*January, 1881.*





# ANCIENT HISTORY.

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overthrew the Western Empire are still occupying the lands which they then overran. Modern history thus becomes the biography of the living; ancient history is the biography of the dead. But between these two great sections of history, we usually place a third, called significantly—THE MIDDLE AGES—a transition period of darkness, and comparative confusion. The date most conveniently assigned to their termination

is A.D. 1453, when the Eastern Empire fell, and the Turks took Constantinople.

The 4480 years of which Ancient History takes cognizance, may be divided into nine Periods, marked at their beginning and end by great events of world-wide interest. Thus :—

PERIOD	}	Began B.C. 4004.	Creation.
I.		Ended B.C. 2348.	Deluge.
PERIOD	}	Began B.C. 2348.	Deluge.
II.		Ended B.C. 1491.	Exodus of the children of Israel.
PERIOD	}	Began B.C. 1491.	Exodus of the children of Israel.
III.		Ended B.C. 753.	Building of Rome.
PERIOD	}	Began B.C. 753.	Building of Rome.
IV.		Ended B.C. 538.	Fall of Babylon.
PERIOD	}	Began B.C. 538.	Fall of Babylon.
V.		Ended B.C. 323.	Death of Alexander.
PERIOD	}	Began B.C. 323.	Death of Alexander.
VI.		Ended B.C. 146.	Fall of Carthage.
PERIOD	}	Began B.C. 146.	Fall of Carthage.
VII.		Ended.	Birth of Christ.
PERIOD	}	Began.	Birth of Christ.
VIII.		Ended A.D. 330.	Building of Constantinople.
PERIOD	}	Began A.D. 330.	Building of Constantinople.
IX.		Ended A.D. 476.	Fall of Rome.

## PERIOD I.

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OF this First or Ante-diluvian Period our only history is to be found in the first six chapters of Genesis. They make us acquainted with the longevity of man before the flood, with the institution of marriage, of the Sabbath, of the worship of God by sacrifice. They shew us also a people who were acquainted with the arts, and some of the sciences; but tell, moreover, of the universal depravity, which led to a divine punishment, without a parallel in the history of our race.

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## PERIOD II.

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*Began with the Deluge, B.C. 2348. Ended with the  
Exodus of the children of Israel, B.C. 1491.*

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THE confusion of tongues, and consequent dispersion of the inhabitants of the post-diluvian world naturally led to the formation and foundation of the earliest empires which held sway over the human race. The Bible—the most accurate of all historical documents—traces for us the three families which sprang from the three sons of Noah, and describes their first diffusion from their primeval centre. The classification furnished by the 10th of Genesis is the only correct one. We find the members of the three races there described “After their families, after their tongues, in their lands, and in their nations”—*i.e.* (1) Race, (2) Language, (3) Geographical position, and (4) Political nationality are carefully distinguished.

Ham was destined to people Africa, and his four sons were the ancestors respectively of the CUSHITES, or Ethiopians, the EGYPTIANS, or children of Mizraim, the LIBYANS, or children of Phut, and the CANAANITES. Japhet made his way Westward, and was destined to people Europe. Shem remained nearer the primeval seats, and was the forefather of the principal Eastern nations.

The very names of Shem and Japhet are symbolical of the destinies foretold in Noah's prophecy : " God shall enlarge Japhet, and he shall dwell in the tabernacles of Shem." Unless we are familiar with the East (the " tabernacles of Shem ") we can never understand the full significance of the ultimate triumph of the West.

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## HISTORY OF EGYPT.

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PERIOD II.

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THE Egyptians deserve the earliest place in the history of the ancient world. They called their land CHEM, which is the same as its Bible name "The land of Ham" (see Ps. cv. 23, 27; cvi. 22); and gives us the clue to the origin of this wonderful people. Their founder is usually said to be MENES, who has been identified with Mizraim the son of Ham; but this is more than doubtful. Menes however appears to have been the founder of Memphis, and of the first Memphian dynasty, of the kings of which we cannot speak with any certainty. The real history of Egypt begins with the Pyramids, the first of which was probably built about B.C. 2000,\* by

CHEOPS or SUPHIS I. (in hieroglyphics KHUFU). It is known as the Great Pyramid, and is no rude essay in architecture, but a marvellous structure, in which every form and angle is preserved with geometrical exactitude. The successor of CHEOPS was his brother CEPHREN who built the Second Pyramid. The Third was the work of

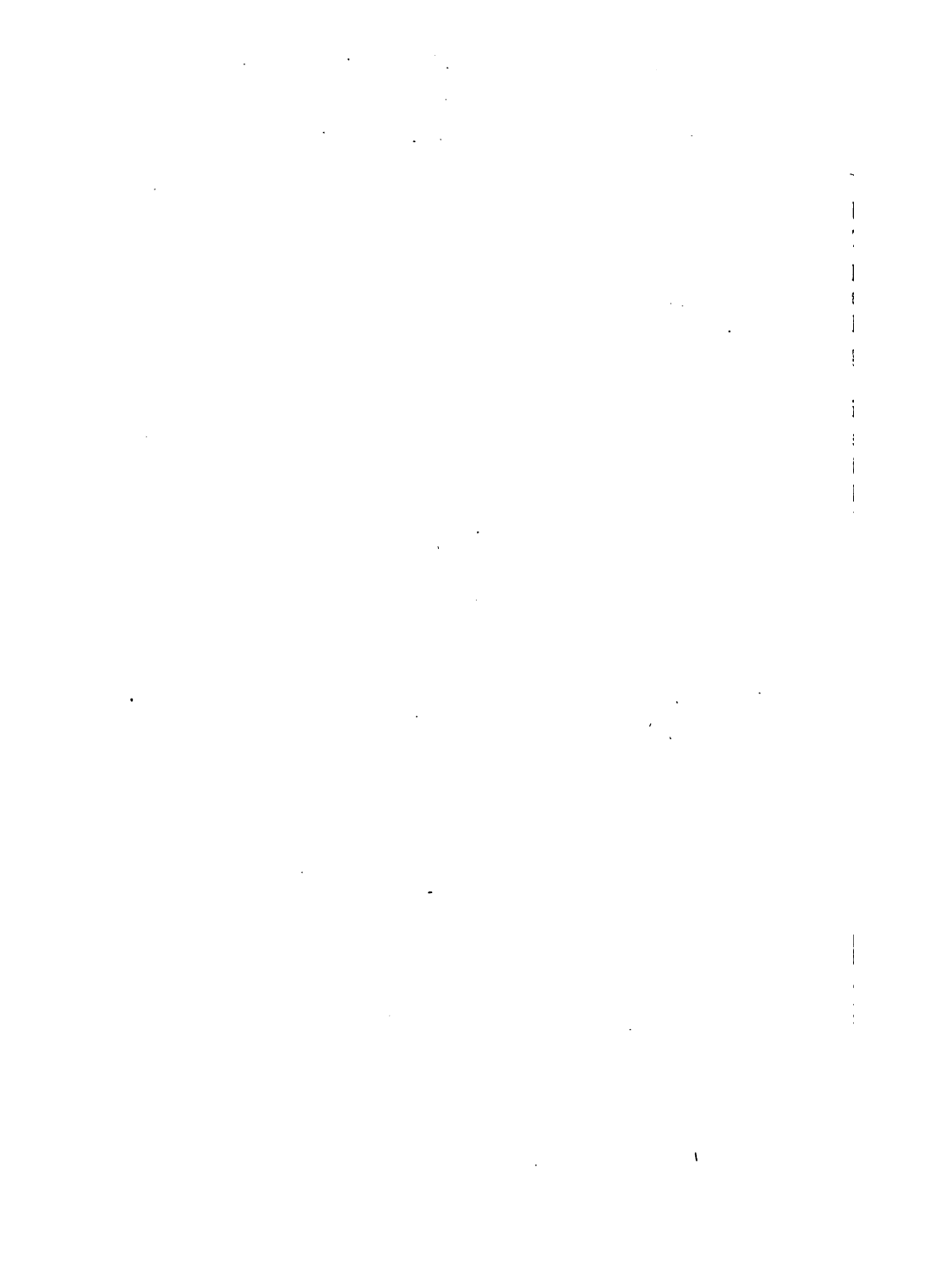
MYCERINUS. It is smaller, but more beautiful than the other two, cased half-way up with Ethiopian granite. The coffin-lid (from inside the sarcophagus) inscribed with the name of MEN-KA-RE, with the

\* The difficult subject of Egyptian chronology cannot be entered upon here.



FUNERAL CHAMBER OF MYCERINUS—THIRD PYRAMID.





bones found near it, is now in the British Museum. The Pyramids testify to a period of prosperity and peace; and prove to us that many centuries before any empire had been established on the banks of the Euphrates, or the Tigris, Egypt was under a powerful government, and peopled by a highly civilized race.

While these kings and their successors were reigning in the north, it is probable that contemporaneous sovereigns ruled the south, though Thebes continued to be a place of little account, long after Memphis had risen to a position of power and importance. When, however, the northern kingdom began to decline, the southern assumed the supremacy, and gradually extended its power over all Egypt. The virtual founder of Thebes was

OSIR-TASEN OR SESORTASEN I., for his name is found on the oldest portion of the great Temple of Karnak. But he evidently united under his sway the whole country, for an obelisk of his is still erect at Heliopolis. After his successor

AMENEMES II., we meet with

SESORTASEN II., who was the greatest of his dynasty, and completed the conquest of Ethiopia. He built the fortress of Semneh, which marks the southern limit of the empire of the Pharaohs. His son

AMENEMES III. was the constructor of the celebrated palace known as THE LABYRINTH and of the LAKE MÆRIS, an artificial reservoir for regulating the inundation of the Nile.

After the rule of this remarkable dynasty, a period of great obscurity ensued, during which nomad hordes of Semitic origin invaded the country, and made themselves masters of Lower Egypt. Their kings

are usually called the HYK-SOS, or SHEPHERD KINGS, and the first of them was

SAITES, who built the city of Tanis, and reared in it the Temple of SET, the Egyptian Baal. Thus Tanis was elevated to a rank above Memphis, which seems never to have recovered from their devastation. In the Museum at Cairo are many monuments illustrating the reigns of these kings. They evidently became assimilated to the Egyptians, and adopted the manners and customs of their new country, mixed with some Semitic usages. To one of them Joseph must have been prime minister; and thus the fragmentary allusions of Scripture throw light on this troubled part of Egyptian history. At length the native dynasty which had been crushed, and reduced to vassalage by the Shepherd Kings, began to consolidate itself in the Thebaid, and gathered strength to revolt.

AMOSIS or AAHMES may be considered the conqueror of the Hyksos, and founder of the new Theban dynasty, which extended its sway over Lower as well as Upper Egypt. He married an Ethiopian princess, in addition to his previous wife; representations of both may be seen in the British Museum, and in that of Cairo are some of the ornaments found on the mummy of the king's mother.

THOTHMES I., or THETHMOSIS I., another king of this line, probably began the great palace of Karnak, in the central court of which stood two obelisks bearing his name; but

THETHMOSIS III. was still more celebrated. His sister shared the glory of his reign, and ruled Egypt for seventeen years. Her name was

HATASOU or NEMT-AMEN, and one of the obelisks

recording the events of her reign is still erect at Karnak. It is of rose-colored granite, 108 feet high, and covered with hieroglyphics of the finest workmanship. The British Museum contains the head and arm of the huge colossal statue of Thethmosis III. from Karnak, and there are more bricks bearing his name than that of any other king. His monuments are to be found through the whole valley of the Nile from the Delta to above the second Cataract.

THETHMOSIS IV., another king of this dynasty, was also a conqueror, and at one time it was supposed that the Sphinx was his colossal portrait. It stands near the Pyramids, looking eastward over the Nile, and is hewn out of the solid rock. The latest writers, however, tell us, that the Sphinx was already in existence when Cheops built the Great Pyramid, and that it is the colossal image of the Egyptian god ARMACHIS.

AMENOPHIS III. built the Temple of Ammon, to the north of Karnak, as well as the two seated colossi, one of which has become so celebrated. The Greeks and Romans identified this king with Memnon, the legendary founder of the edifices of this district. They said that the statue was heard at sunrise to emit sounds which were taken to be his morning salutation to his divine mother Aurora, and hence it came to be called the "Vocal Memnon."

The death of Amenophis III. was followed by a kind of religious revolution, of which the records are obscure. We find "Stranger Kings" alluded to on the monuments for awhile, but afterwards the old line of Theban monarchs was restored, and we come to the name of

SETHOS I., the builder of part of the "Hall of

Columns" in the palace of Karnak, the triumph of Egyptian architecture, and of the Temple at Abydos recently brought to light. His tomb, the sarcophagus of which is of alabaster, excels all the sepulchres of the Theban kings. His son was the great

RAMESES II., who has been called "The Louis XIV. of the Egyptian monarchy," from his despotism and cruelty. The magnificent buildings with which he covered all Egypt, were purchased by the cruel oppression of the Hebrews. The Bible alludes to "a new king that arose," and says: "he knew not Joseph." Now the dynasty which immediately succeeded the Hyksos seems to have cherished the Shemites of the Delta as useful subjects, and during that period they multiplied to such an extent, that when the Rameses dynasty ascended the throne, jealous fears began to be entertained, that they might possibly become hostile. They were consequently organized into gangs under task-masters to work upon the public edifices (see Ex. i. 14) which are numerous in every part of Egypt. We have in the British Museum the fist of his colossal portrait from the Temple of Phtha at Memphis, and the bust of the statue, 60 feet high, which adorned the great court of the Rameseum. But Tanis was his favourite residence. His son

MANEPHTHA was probably the Pharaoh before whom "Jehovah did wondrous things in the field of Zoan," and during whose reign the Exodus was accomplished. A careful examination of Exodus xiv., xv. shews that the king did not necessarily accompany his army into the Red Sea, and Manephta appears to have survived the disaster many years. His tomb is one of the most magnificent at Thebes.

## HISTORY OF ASSYRIA.

PERIOD II.

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THE region watered by the great rivers—the Euphrates and the Tigris—is divided into two parts, distinct in their physical features—Upper Mesopotamia or Assyria, and Lower Mesopotamia or Babylonia. The former is an undulating country, sloping down from the mountains which divide it from Media, to the great Syrian desert. The latter is a vast plain, the northern part of which is called Upper Babylonia, while the lower is distinguished by Greek geographers as Chaldæa. It was in Upper Babylonia that the idea first originated of an universal empire, with a mighty centre for its capital. Men thought to frustrate God's design of dispersing them over the earth. The attempt at universal dominion has again and again been tried on the same spot, and has always been ultimately frustrated. From the confusion of tongues, by which God defeated this early design, the city received the name of BABEL or BABYLON. This same spot was the capital of Nimrod, grandson of Ham, who from thence extended his empire northwards, and founded Nineveh : see Gen. x. 11 (margin). His name still survives in tradition, and to him the modern Arabs ascribe all the great works of the

district, so that we meet with the BIRS-NIMRÚD, the SUHR-EL-NIMRÚD, &c.

The Assyrian race were Shemite, as their name indicates, while that of their capital seems to point to the great Cushite conqueror.

We find from Scripture that as early as the 19th century B.C. there was a king at the head of a confederacy of several states, with its seat in the lower valley of the Euphrates. He is described as king of Elam (SUSIANA), and the five cities of the plain (Sodom, Gomorrah, Admah, Zeboim, and Bela) were tributary to him. This king was

CHEDORLAOMER, and it would appear that he was the head of a new line of conquerors, and the virtual founder of the Chaldean Empire. Among the ruins recently explored in the province of Susiana, bricks have been found, bearing the name of KUDUR-MAPULA, who is styled "Ravager of the West," and may perhaps be identified with Chedorlaomer.

Possibly his displacement of a large number of Shemites led to the invasion of Egypt by the Hyksos. Much obscurity rests on the history of the next dynasty; the names of fifty kings have been discovered, but little is yet known of them with certainty. The old Chaldean monarchy was probably overthrown by a Semitic revolution, and an independent kingdom established at Nineveh, to which that of Babylon was sometimes subject, and sometimes hostile.

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## HISTORY OF THE ISRAELITES.

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PERIOD II.

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IN order to preserve among mankind the knowledge of Himself, God made choice of one family, from which the future Messiah was to spring. The whole world had apparently relapsed into idolatry\* when "the God of glory appeared to Abram," and called him forth from Mesopotamia into an unknown land, which was destined to be the theatre of the mightiest events which ever transpired on the earth. The Canaanites gave him the name of the "Hebrew," or "the man who had crossed the river." His history, and that of his immediate descendants during the Second Period must be carefully studied in the Book of Genesis. Egyptian history has already elucidated the period of their bondage under the Rameses dynasty; and their miraculous deliverance forms so important an epoch, that it has been chosen as the event which winds up this section of ancient history.

\* See Josh. xxiv. 2.

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## HISTORY OF GREECE.

—  
PERIOD II.  
—

THE name "Greece" was never used by the inhabitants of the country so described on our maps; it is from the Romans that we have derived the word. The Greeks called their land HELLAS and themselves HELLENES, because they traced their descent to HELLEN, son of Deucalion and Pyrrha. According to mythological history, when Zeus resolved to destroy the degenerate race of men, Deucalion and Pyrrha were the only mortals saved. They floated in safety in a ship of their own building, during the nine days flood; and at last their vessel rested on Mount Parnassus, in Phocis. They became the parents of HELLEN, AMPHICTYON, PROTOGENIA, and others. Hellen had three sons—DORUS, XUTHUS, and ÆOLUS. Of these, Dorus and Eolus gave their names to the Dorians and Eolians, and Xuthus, through his two sons Ion and Achæus, became the forefather of the Ionians and Achæans.

Comparing this mythological account with Scripture and with fact, we can easily trace the underlying truths on which the fabulous history is built up. In Gen. x. 2 we are told that the sons of Japheth were: GOMER, MAGOG, MADAI, JAVAN, TUBAL, MESHECH, and

TIRAS. Of these, two seem to be dwelt upon as the more important, *Gomer* and *Javan*, and we are told that "the Isles of the Gentiles were peopled by them." *Javan* in its old Hebrew form is the same as *Ion*, and thus he was clearly the forefather of the Greeks; but we naturally enquire through which of his sons? Clearly through the eldest *Elishah*, whom *Josephus* identifies with the *ÆOLIANS*; others with *ELIS*. The residence of his descendants is described in *Ezekiel* xxvii, 7, as the "isles of *Elishah*," whence the *Phœnicians* obtained their purple and blue dyes. From Greece the *Æolians* emigrated to *Asia Minor*, and in *Ezekiel's* age occupied the maritime district in the north-west of that country, named after them *Æolis*. The purple shell-fish was found on this coast.

Tradition tells us, moreover, that *Athens* was founded by *Cecrops*, an *Egyptian*, and his name is preserved in the *Acropolis*.

It is certain that the *Phœnicians* planted colonies in Greece, and *Thebes* is said to have been founded by *Cadmus*, one of their leaders. We have his name in their celebrated citadel—the *Cadmeia*.

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### PERIOD III.

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*Began with the Exodus of the Children of Israel,  
B.C. 1491. Ended with the building of Rome,  
B.C. 753.*

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### HISTORY OF EGYPT.

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#### PERIOD III.

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AFTER the death of Manephtha, Egyptian history is somewhat obscure till we meet with a Theban dynasty who claimed descent from the Great Rameses, and adopted his name. The greatest of these kings is known as

RAMESES III., the builder of the Southern "Rameseum." The lid of his sarcophagus is in the Cambridge Museum.

Many kings of the same name successively occupied the throne, but during their time the glory of Egypt gradually declined, and little by little all civil and military power fell into the hands of the priests, who made Tanis their capital, and became independent monarchs. They are known as the twenty-first dynasty, and Solomon appears to have allied himself with the last king of this line, by marrying his

daughter. Another daughter of the same monarch appears to have been united to an officer named Osorchon, who was posted at Bubastis, and whose son was the celebrated

SHESHONK or SHISHAK. He was hence the founder of a military dynasty sprung from the king's body guard, and Bubastis became his favorite residence. This was the sacred city of the goddess Pasht (goddess of Fire). Her temple was of red granite, and the cat was sacred to her. Shishak is the first Pharaoh mentioned in Scripture by his personal name, and on his monuments we find a record of his capture of Jerusalem in the time of Rehoboam, the words "JEHOUADA-MALEK" occurring among a list of conquered districts in a great bas-relief on one of the walls of Karnak. The successors of Shishak appear to have been feeble and unimportant. Rival dynasties arose in the Delta; and Lower and Middle Egypt were divided into no less than thirteen petty states, when a powerful Ethiopian monarch marched northwards and established himself upon the throne. He is known as SABACO I., and is the same as the king So mentioned in 2 Kings xvii. 4, as the ally of Hoshea. Probably he did not succeed in securing the whole country.

## HISTORY OF ASSYRIA.

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PERIOD III.

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RECENT discoveries in the East have enabled us to correct the errors of the legendary history of this period handed down to us by Herodotus. We used to read that Ninus was the founder of Nineveh, and the husband of Semiramis, the daughter of the goddess Derceto; that on his death she reigned alone, built Babylon and Ecbatan, and extended her rule to the Indus.

Ninyas, her son, was said to have conspired against her, upon which she disappeared in the form of a dove. He gave himself up to luxury, and his successors imitated his example. The last king of this early dynasty was said to be Sardanapalus, whose satraps revolted against him, upon which he shut himself up in his palace at Nineveh, collected his treasures and wives on a vast funeral pile, and perished in the conflagration.

Turning to the contemporary history, furnished by bricks and slabs, we come to the conclusion that Asshur, not Nineveh, was the oldest capital of the Assyrian kingdom, and the first king whose name has been discovered appears to have been

BEL-LUSH. Later on we find that of

TIGLATH PILESER I., who, on an historical cylinder, gives a wonderful account of his own exploits, stating that he made himself master of forty-two countries

and their kings. We seem warranted in assigning to him the first organization of Assyria as an empire. Moreover, the earliest specimen of Assyrian sculpture is a figure of this king in bas-relief, on the face of the native rocks, in a cavern near the eastern source of the Tigris. The next monarch of note was

ASSEHUR-NASIR-PAL, the builder of the royal quarter of Calah, now known as the North-west Palace of Nimrud. His name may possibly be identified with Sardanapalus, but instead of being weak or frivolous he was a mighty conqueror. His son

SHALMANUBAR or SHALMANESER II. is well known from the celebrated "Black Obelisk" in the British Museum, which contains an illustrated history of his reign. Later on we find

IVALUSH III. or IV., and discover in him the husband of the true Semiramis. A statue of the god Nebo, found in a temple dedicated to that deity by this king, adjoining the South-east Palace of Nimrud, bears an inscription to Nebo by an officer, who was governor of Calah, as a votive offering for the life of "his lord, IVALUSH, and of his lady SAMMURAMIT." They have been called by a French writer "the Ferdinand and Isabella of Mesopotamia." After their death Assyria appears to have declined, and there was probably some foundation for the statement of Ctesias, the historian, that in 788 B.C. Arbaces the satrap of Media revolted against his master, and thus achieved the conquest of Nineveh. All we can determine with certainty is this, that some revolution did occur about that time, which gave to Babylon a momentary supremacy.

## HISTORY OF GREECE.

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PERIOD III.

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THE greater part of this period must be included in what is known as the "Heroic Age" of Greece. During it Homer lived, and wrote his immortal poems the "Iliad" and the "Odyssey." The fall of Troy is supposed to have taken place about the year B.C. 1184, and that event is generally fixed upon as the end of the fabulous history of this classic land. We may note that Homer was probably contemporary with Elijah.

After a protracted contest the Dorians became undisputed masters of the greater part of the Peloponnesus. A stream of migration continued to flow across the Ægean from Greece to Asia Minor for several generations; the Ionic was the most important one.

A spirit of union was kept alive among the various branches of the Greek race by the four great festivals of the Olympic, the Pythian, the Isthmian, and the Nemean games. The former were the most celebrated, and the year 776 B.C. has been given as the date of the first great Olympic game. They were celebrated at the end of every four years; the only prize being a garland of wild olive. For nearly a thousand years the Greeks continued to date all events from the Olympiads.

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The leading states of Greece were Athens and Sparta. Kingly power may possibly have existed for a time in the former, but in 1056 B.C. when David ascended the throne of Israel, Codrus, the last king of Athens, sacrificed himself for his country, and a Republic was formed, governed by nine Archons, annually chosen from the nobles. One of these was the celebrated Draco, whose measures were so severe, that his laws were said to be "written in blood."

Sparta was a dyarchy, and as early as the first Olympiad could boast of such a legislator as Lycurgus. He subjected his countrymen to a discipline unparalleled either in ancient or modern times, combining the ascetic rigours of a monastery with the stern discipline of a garrison. The result was the rapid growth of the political power of Sparta, and the subjugation of the neighbouring states.

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## HISTORY OF ROME.

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PERIOD III.

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CENTRAL Italy was originally occupied by the UMBRI, whose capital AMERIA is said to have been built 500 years before Rome. The Aborigines of the Apennines were called SABELLI, from whom we may trace five of the nations of Italy: the *Samnites*, the *Sabines*, the *Picnians*, the *Campanians*, and the *Lucanians*.

The most remarkable people in the peninsula were the ETRUSCANS, and their origin is still a matter of historical speculation.

The OSCAN or OPICAN race occupied the South, but Greek settlements afterwards studded the coast of Lower Italy, which hence acquired the name of Magna Græcia.

LATIUM was thus a kind of focus in which all these different races converged. It was the pride of the Romans to believe that they were descended from the Trojans. Hence the well-known legend which connects Æneas with the foundation of Rome.

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## HISTORY OF THE ISRAELITES.

## PERIOD III.

SEE Bible History from Exodus to 2 Kings xv.

Prophets of Judah.	Years reigned.	Kings of Judah.	Years B.C.	Kings of Israel.	Years reigned.	Prophets of Israel.
Shemaiah	17	Rehoboam ...	975	.....	...	
	...	.....	974	Jeroboam	22	Man of God
	3	Abijam .....	957	.....	...	from Judah
Oded .....	41	Asa .....	955	.....	...	Ahijah
Azariah ...	...	.....	954	Nadab .....	2	
Hanani ...	...	.....	953	Baasha.....	24	
Jehu son of	...	.....	930	Elah .....	2	
Hanani ...	...	.....	929	Zimri .....	7dys	
	...	.....	.....	Omri .....	12	
	...	.....	918	Ahab .....	22	Elijah
	25	Jehoshaphat	914	.....	...	Micaiah
	...	.....	897	Ahaziah ...	2	
Eliezer.....	...	.....	896	Jehoram ...	12	Elisha
Jahaziel ...	8	Jehoram .....	889	.....	...	
	1	Ahaziah or Je-	885	.....	...	
	...	hoahaz .....	.....	.....	...	
	6	Athaliah .....	884	Jehu .....	28	
	40	Joash .....	878	.....	...	
	...	.....	856	Jehoahaz...	17	Jonah
Zechariah	...	.....	839	Jehoash ...	16	
son of Je-	...	.....	.....	.....	...	
hoiada ...	29	Amaziah .....	838	.....	...	
	...	.....	825	Jeroboam II.	41	Hosea
	52	Uzziah.....	810	.....	...	
	...	.....	784	Interregnum	...	
	...	.....	.....	for 11 yrs.	...	
	...	.....	773	Zechariah	...	
	...	.....	772	Shallum ...	...	
	...	.....	772	Menahem	...	
	...	.....	761	Pekahiah...	...	
	...	.....	759	Pekah .....	...	
Issiah .....	...	Jotham .....	758	.....	...	

## PERIOD IV.

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*Began with the Building of Rome B.C. 753. Ended  
with the fall of Babylon B.C. 538.*

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## HISTORY OF EGYPT.

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### PERIOD IV.

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OF the Ethiopian line of kings the most celebrated was

TIRHAKAH, the contemporary of Sennacherib and Hezekiah. His reign was evidently a brilliant one, though petty princes appear to have disputed his power in the Delta. It was during his reign that the miraculous overthrow of the Assyrian host took place on the confines of Egypt. After his death the rival kings of the North had more chance of regaining their former power, and by the help of Greek mercenaries, one of them named

PSAMMETICHUS succeeded in establishing himself at Saïs, and thus became the head of a new dynasty. If there were twelve of the petty princes, which is not unlikely, we see what gave rise to the legendary history of the Dodecarchy. The accession of Psam-

metichus was probably in the year 666 B.C. Sais thus became the last capital of independent Egypt. The policy of this king was quite different to that of any of his predecessors. He encouraged intercourse with the Greeks, and was the first to open to other nations emporia for their merchandise. He built or enlarged a splendid edifice at Memphis for the bull Apis, and erected propylæa to the great Temple of Phtha in the same city. He was succeeded by

NECHO—the Pharaoh Necho of the Bible, who was an enterprising warrior. Nineveh was tottering to its fall, and Necho set out for the Euphrates, through the maritime plain, and the valley of Esdraelon. Here he encountered Josiah and slew him. Advancing to Carchemish, he posted an Egyptian garrison in that key to the line of the Euphrates. Returning through Palestine he deposed Jeho-ahaz, Josiah's son, and carried him away prisoner to Egypt, compelling the Jews to pay tribute. But his triumph was of short duration. Nebuchadnezzar recovered Carchemish, and at one blow dispossessed the Egyptians of all their conquests in Syria and Palestine; thus fulfilling the prophecy of Jeremiah: Jer. xlvi. 2—6, 17; see also 2 Kings xxiv. 7. Necho was succeeded by his son

PSAMMIS or PSAMMETICUS II., who reigned only six years, and was followed by his son

APRIES, called in Scripture Pharaoh Hophra. He continued the warlike policy of his predecessors, and made himself master of Tyre, Sidon, and Cyprus, thus spreading terror throughout Phœnicia. He entered into an alliance with Zedekiah, king of Judah,

and compelled the Babylonians to retire from Jerusalem for a time; but the Jews were warned by the prophets Ezekiel and Jeremiah not to trust to their Egyptian ally; for Nebuchadnezzar was destined by God to be the conqueror not only of Palestine, but of Egypt: see Ezek. xxix. 3, 10, 19; Jer. xxvii. 6; xliii. 10, 11.

The story which has been handed down to us by Herodotus is, that the army of Apries revolted against him, and placed AMASIS on the throne; but we must remember that Greek writers obtained their information from the Egyptian priests, whose object it was to pass over every fact which tended to lessen the glory of their country. The truth, however, appears to have been, that Apries was deposed by Nebuchadnezzar, whose successful invasion of Egypt prepared the way for a yet more complete overthrow under the Persian power.

AMASIS was therefore only a vassal to Babylon, yet he raised the country to a very high state of material prosperity, and adorned the temples with works of art, which bear traces of Greek influence. He built the beautiful Temple of Isis at Memphis, and the propylæa of the Temple of Neith at Saïs.

Solon, Thales, and Cleobulus are all said to have visited the court of Amasis, to study the manners and customs of the country.

The Theban sarcophagus of the wife of this king is now in the British Museum. In his latter days Egypt was threatened with a Persian invasion, but he did not live to see the evil which came upon his country.

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## HISTORY OF ASSYRIA.

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### PERIOD IV.

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NINEVEH appears speedily to have recovered from the disaster with which the last period ended ; and within a year or two of the building of Rome, we find that a new empire was founded by

TIGLATH PILESER II, a king whose name is familiar to us in the Bible. Calah continued to be the capital, and there he built a new palace at the south-eastern angle of the Nimrud platform. His first enterprise was against Babylonia, where he received the submission of Merodach Baladan, probably the father of the celebrated king of that name. But the great object of his policy was the reduction of Syria and Palestine. For three years he was engaged in the conquest of Arpad near Damascus. He then invaded the dominions of Pekah, king of Israel, and carried away great numbers of the people to Assyria : see 2 Kings xv. 29. A second invasion was undertaken at the request of Ahaz, king of Judah, who being attacked by Pekah and Rezin (king of Damascus) implored help of the Assyrians : 2 Kings xvi. 7. Tiglath Pileser accordingly marched into Syria, slew Rezin, and proceeded to conquer Pekah, over-running all the district beyond Jordan, and carrying away the tribes of Reuben, Gad, and the half-tribe of Manasseh

1 Chron. v. 26. This may be considered as the beginning of the captivity of the ten tribes.

The successor of Tiglath Pileser was

SHALMANESER, who is familiar to us in Scripture as the destroyer of the kingdom of Samaria, though it seems that he did not live to complete the conquest. Hoshea, who had obtained the throne of Israel by murdering Pekah, seized the occasion afforded by a new reign in Assyria, to refuse the payment of tribute, but he submitted on Shalmaneser's marching against him, not however till at least one of his cities had been treated in the true Assyrian fashion: see Hosea x. 14, compared with Psalm cxxxvii. 9. Again venturing to refuse the tribute, in reliance upon Egyptian help, the Assyrian king invaded the land, and laid siege to Samaria. The siege lasted three years, during which time Shalmaneser died, and leaving only an infant son, the throne was seized by the commander-in-chief

SARGON, who completed the destruction of Samaria, cast its king into prison, and carried away the remaining tribes, placing them in Halah and Habor by the river of Gozan and in the cities of the Medes: see Hosea x. 7; 2 Kings xviii. 11. The discovery of his magnificent palace at Khorsabad has enabled us to study the complete annals of his marvellous reign. Upon one of the slabs of that palace are these words: "I besieged, took, and occupied the city of Samaria, and carried away 27,280 persons who dwelt in it." Bent on punishing Sabaco for the aid given to Hoshea he marched against Gaza, which then belonged to Egypt, and defeated the Ethiopian monarch at Raphia.

A little later he captured Ashdod (see Isaiah xx. 1), and thus gained command of the maritime route into Egypt. The remainder of his reign was occupied with the conquest of Babylonia. Merodach Baladan retreated into Chaldea, but was captured, and his kingdom placed under an Assyrian viceroy. Among the spoils of the Babylonian camp are mentioned the king's golden tiara, throne, parasol, and silver chariot. But a new insurrection broke out, and Merodach Baladan recovered his throne. Sargon, now an old man, entrusted the suppression of this rebellion to his son

SENNACHERIB, and a tablet has been discovered, containing a report of the son to the father of his ill success. These reverses may have provoked the conspiracy which effected his assassination in B.C. 704.

SENNACHERIB's reign is familiar to us from Scripture, and the discovery of his palace at KOYUNLIK, on the site of Nineveh itself, has afforded the fullest details of all his campaigns. His annals begin with a victory over Merodach Baladan, in Chaldæa, followed by the capture of Babylon where he set up BELIBUS as vassal king. Then marching against Phœnicia, the cities of Sidon, Aradus, and Azotus submit. Sidka, king of Ascalon, alone resisted, and he was carried captive to Assyria with his family and his gods.

Judah was next the object of the Assyrian's wrath; 2 Kings xviii. 13, 2 Chron. xxxii. 1, exactly confirm the words found on one of the Assyrian slabs, that he took "forty-four walled cities, and an infinite number of towns." Hezekiah prepared to defend his capital,



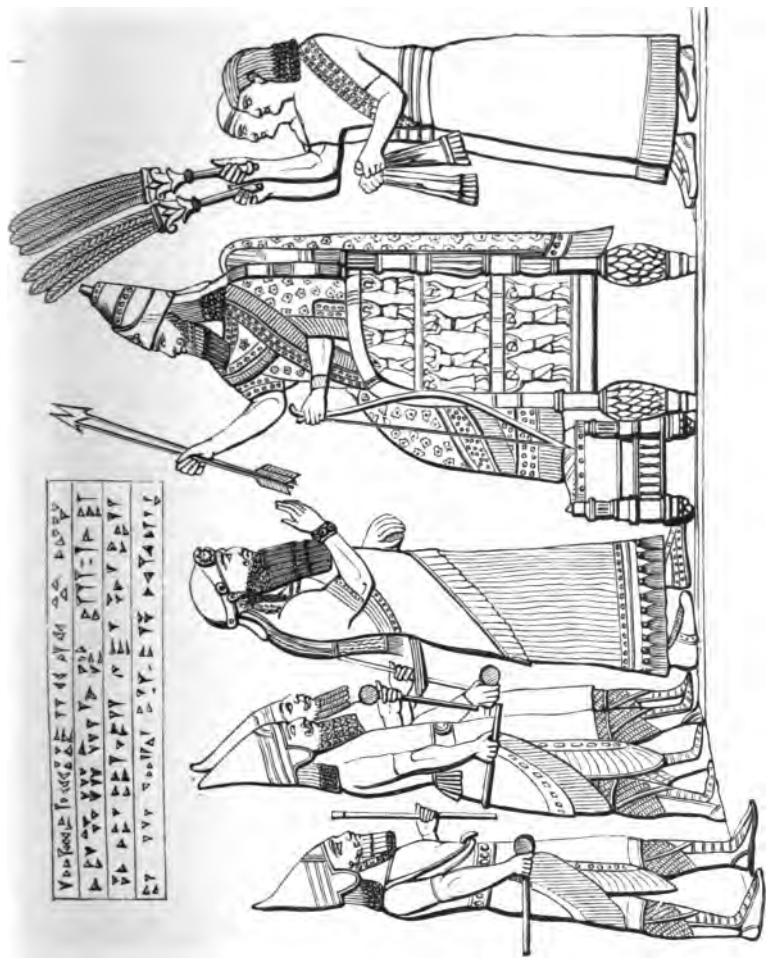
and meanwhile Sennacherib himself passed on to Lachish, sending, however, three of his chief officers with a great host against Jerusalem to defy the helpless king: see 2 Kings xix. 8, 9. Hearing that Tirhakah was on his way to assist Hezekiah, he sent a letter of open defiance to the king of Judah, and then it was that a miraculous destruction swept away a vast number of the Assyrian host, and that Sennacherib himself returned to Nineveh: 2 Chron. xxxii. 21. It was not however till long after this, that his sons conspired against him, and slew him, and that his younger son,

ESARHADDON, succeeded to the throne.

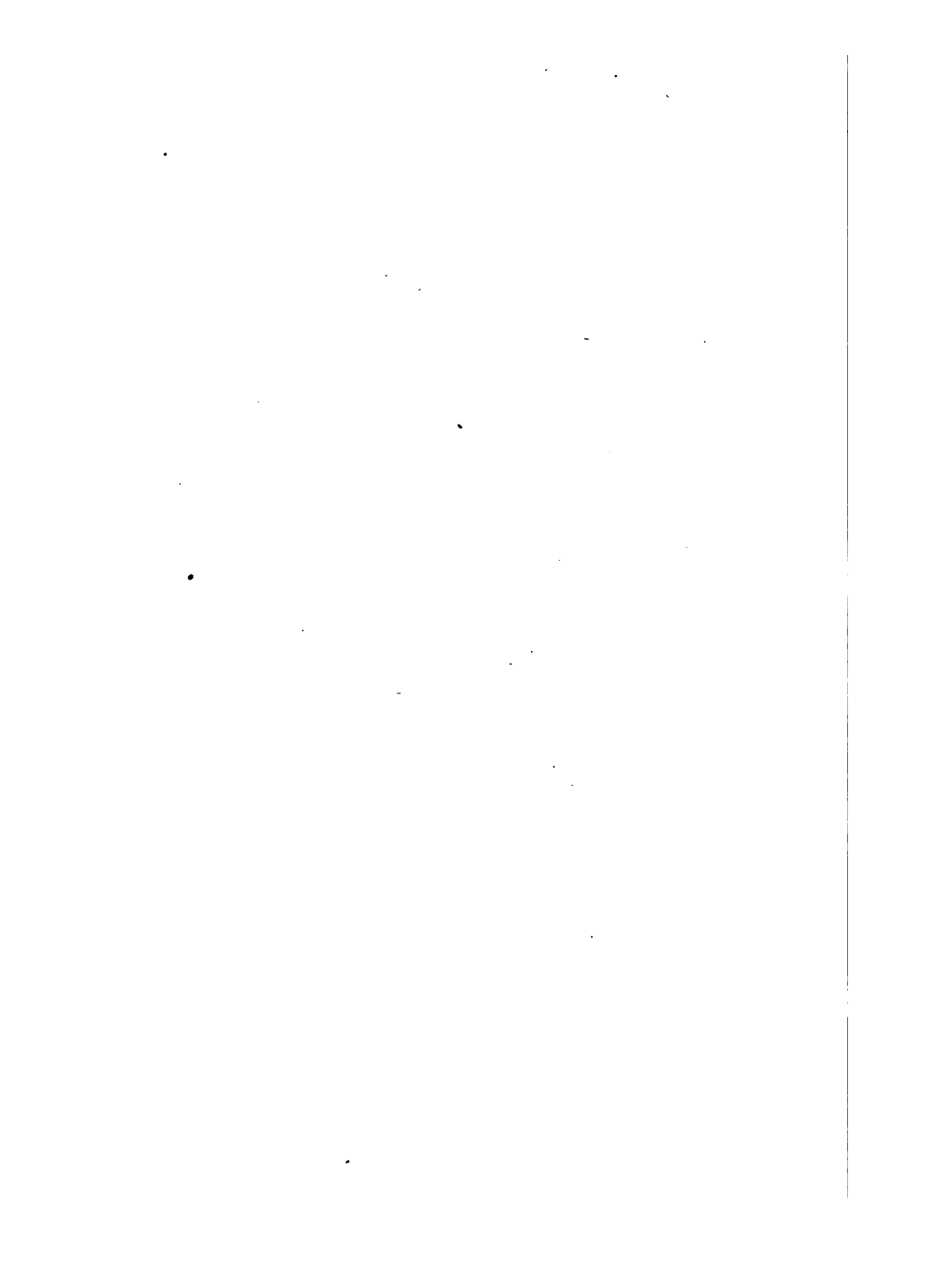
He alone, of all the Assyrian kings, reigned at Babylon during his whole reign, which confirms the passage in 2 Chron. xxxiii. 11. He restored the power of Assyria in the West, and carried her arms into Egypt. Manasseh, king of Judah, having rebelled, the armies of the great king took him captive, and his name occurs in one of the inscriptions. When thoroughly humbled by his severe captivity, Esarhaddon restored the king of Judah to the position of a vassal king. He also reinforced the population of Samaria from the conquered people of Chaldea and Susiana: see Ezra iv. 10. He tells us that he reared three palaces; traces of which have been discovered at Nineveh, Calah, and Babylon.

His son and successor

ASSHUR-BANI-PAL was one of the most magnificent of all the Assyrian kings. His conquest of Susiana forms the subject of the slabs bearing his name in the British Museum, and if we study the cruelties



RAESHAKHEH BEFORE SENNACHERIB.



there depicted we shall understand the prophet Nahum's description of Nineveh as "the city of blood:" Nah. iii. 1. These slabs he added to the palace of his grandfather at Koyunjik, very near which he constructed one for himself, the ground-plan of which is in the form of a T. This king is the warlike Sardanapalus mentioned by some profane writers. His son, and successor was

SARACUS, the last king of Nineveh. Upon the ruins of Esarhaddon's palace (apparently destroyed by fire) he built another edifice, now occupying the south-east corner of the Nimroud platform. Its walls are unsculptured, and bear witness to the decay of the monarchy. For awhile victory attended his arms. Phraortes, king of Media, who came against him was defeated and killed, but his son Cyaxares, burning with revenge, resolved on the destruction of Nineveh. The king remained in the north to meet the threatened danger, confiding to his general, Nabopolassar, the government of Babylon. The latter proved faithless to his master, and joined the Median army; their joint forces besieged Nineveh, and Saracus thus assailed by enemies from without, and traitors from within, withdrew to his palace, to which he himself set fire, and perished in the conflagration. The conqueror completed the ruin of this once magnificent capital, and gave it to the flames: see Zeph. ii. 13—15; Nahum ii. 4—6; iii. 12—19; Ezek. xxxi. 3—14.

The fall of Nineveh was thus as complete as it was sudden, and the rise of Babylon was almost equally rapid.

NABOPOLASSAR became the undisputed king of the

valley of the Euphrates, while the Northern and Eastern portions of the Assyrian territory were annexed by the king of Media to his own dominions.

The events of his reign are little known, except the successful invasion of Babylon by Pharaoh Necho, king of Egypt, which we have already noticed. Nabopolassar was succeeded by the

NEBUCHADNEZZAR so celebrated both in sacred and profane history. He had been sent by his father against the Egyptians, and commenced his victorious career by the recapture of Carchemish, completely subduing Pharaoh Necho, and recovering the whole country from the Euphrates to the Nile: see 2 Kings, xxiv. 7.

While thus engaged he became, by his father's death, king of Babylon, and hastened to that city.

Within the conquered region west of the Euphrates, there remained two powers, the one mighty in its commercial wealth, the other in religious patriotism. When Nebuchadnezzar pursued Pharaoh Necho to the border of Egypt, Jehoiakim, king of Judah, ventured to withstand the conqueror.

Jerusalem was consequently attacked, and taken after a brief siege. The king was destined to share the captivity of Daniel and others, but was spared, and had he accepted the position of a vassal, might have reigned in peace, but he rebelled (2 Kings xxiv. 1), and according to Josephus was put to death by Nebuchadnezzar: see Jer. xxii. 18, 19; xxxvi. 30. His son, Jehoiachin, was permitted to succeed to the throne, but he intrigued with Egypt, and Nebuchadnezzar returned to receive the surrender of the city.

The king was carried captive to Babylon, with ten thousand prisoners, among whom was Ezekiel: 2 Kings xxiv. 15, 16.

Even yet Jerusalem was spared. Zedekiah, the uncle of Jehoiachin, was allowed to reign over the miserable remnant who remained, but he rebelled, and his treachery brought down on Jerusalem all the wrath of the Great King. The city was taken, the temple given to the flames, the king's eyes put out, and himself carried to Babylon, where he died: see Ezek. xii. 13.

Meanwhile, another detachment of the Assyrian army had besieged Tyre, which after thirteen years was taken, and the old part of the city destroyed. Nebuchadnezzar thus became master of all Phœnicia and Syria, and followed up their conquest by that of the Ammonites, Moabites, and Edomites, whose hatred had led them to serve willingly in the war against the Jews, and who now felt the cruelties over which they then exulted: Ps. cxxxvii. 7. Within four years of the fall of Tyre, Nebuchadnezzar led an army into Egypt, deposed Apries, and reduced that kingdom to the position of a vassal power.

Nine years of peace succeeded to these wars, during which time those magnificent works were completed which formed the special glory of Babylon. We may mention among them the Great Wall, the Hanging Gardens, the Temple of Belus, and that of Nebo, at Borsippa, now known as the Birs Nimrud, the huge Reservoir—140 miles in circumference,—the Royal River, or Canal, which connects the Euphrates with the Tigris, and the quays and breakwaters along the

shores of the Persian Gulf. These were not all. He seems to have either rebuilt or repaired almost every city and temple throughout the entire country. There are at least one hundred sites around Babylon, the bricks of which bear his name.

It was probably upon the terrace of the Hanging Garden, overlooking the city, that Nebuchadnezzar was walking when he said "Is not this Great Babylon that I have builded?" &c.: Dan. iv. 30—32.

The fearful threat uttered by a voice from heaven was immediately executed; the king was attacked by that form of madness known as lycanthropy. For seven "times" he was thus afflicted, at the end of which we learn that he was re-instated in his regal dignity.

After a reign of forty-three years, this mighty monarch died, and was succeeded by his son

EVIL MERODACH. He released the unfortunate Jehoiachin, king of Judah, from his captivity of thirty-seven years, and treated him with much personal kindness: 2 Kings xxv. 27. After two years he was murdered by his his brother-in-law

NERIGLISSAR, called in Scripture Rab-mag: Jer. xxxix. 3. He reigned only four years, and was succeeded by his son

LABOROSARCHOD; but a conspiracy was formed against him by his courtiers, who murdered him, and conferred the crown on one of their own number.

Thus ended the house of Nabopolassar.

The Chaldean chief who obtained the throne was

NABONADIUS, and to aid in legitimating his usurpation he married Nitocris, the daughter of Nebuchadnezzar. The Great Cyrus was at that time engaged

in the conquest of Lydia, whose king sought an alliance with Babylon, but before Nabonadius had time to grant it, the conqueror had taken Sardis, and was advancing to Babylon itself. Its king was defeated in a single battle, and took refuge in the fortress of Borsippa, having entrusted the care of Babylon to his son

BELSHAZZAR, already associated with him in the government.

The defence was well conducted, and Cyrus himself almost despaired of success, when the great festival so vividly described to us in Daniel v., afforded him the needed opportunity. He diverted the course of the Euphrates, by a canal, the Persians advanced along its bed, and entering the city when its princes and warriors were in a state of intoxication, slew the king, set fire to the gates, and took possession amid a scene of hurry, confusion, and dismay: see Jer. li. 30—58; Isaiah xlv. 1, 2; Dan. v. 31. “At the noise of the taking of Babylon the earth was moved.”

Nabonadius surrendered and was kindly treated. The city though fearfully injured became the second capital of the Persian kings, and was destined by Alexander for his eastern seat of empire.



HISTORY OF MEDIA.  

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PERIOD IV.  

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THE Medes were descended from MADAI the son of Japhet, and called themselves Aarii or Pure men. Hence the word "Iran" and the term "Aryan race." Like all the Eastern nations they were divided into a number of tribes or bodies, over which the priests gained the ascendancy and were called MAGI.

Nothing is known of the early history of the Medes. The first historical notice of them occurs in the annals of Shalmanubar, the "Black Obelisk" king of Assyria.

They fell under the power of that kingdom, and Media thus became an Assyrian province.

Herodotus tells us that the absence of any central authority led to so much anarchy, that one of their judges

DEJOCES made himself king—that he built Ecbatan, and after a prosperous reign left the throne to his son

PHRAORTES. He conquered the neighbouring nation of the Persians, and with their aid attacked Nineveh, but the Assyrians under Saracus proved successful, and Phraortes, with a large part of his army perished on the field of battle. His son

CYAXARES I. was probably the true founder of the

Median kingdom; at any rate he organized the nomad hosts of Media into a military body (B.C. 684). His wars with Lydia lasted five years, but in the midst of one of the battles between the two nations, a total eclipse of the sun took place, which so alarmed the contending parties that both fled in confusion from the field, and a peace was soon after concluded.

CYAXARES then turned his arms against Assyria, resolving to avenge the death of his father Phraortes. Through the treachery of the Babylonians under Nabopolassar, who revolted to the Medes, Nineveh was destroyed as we have already seen.

ASTYAGES succeeded his father Cyaxares about the year B.C. 594—and according to some accounts reconciled the Persians to his authority by giving his daughter Mandane in marriage to Cambyses, their vassal king. Xenophon maintains that Astyages was thrown into prison by his grandson Cyrus; others affirm that the latter instead of seizing the crown for himself submitted to the rule of

CYAXARES II., his uncle, who thus took the title of Darawesh or Darius (king)—that he captured Babylon before he united the crown of the Medes and Persians in his own person, and succeeded Cyaxares in 584 B.C., having been associated with him in the government several years. This Cyaxares would then be the "Darius the Mede" mentioned in the Book of Daniel. Modern authorities dispute the existence of a second Cyaxares, and are therefore forced to the conclusion that the viceroy appointed over Babylon by Cyrus, when he returned to Persia after its capture, was permitted to assume the title of king, and was a Mede not a Persian by birth.

## HISTORY OF PERSIA.

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### PERIOD IV.

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THE history of the ancient Persians is involved in great obscurity. They were a cognate race to the Medes, of nomadic habits, and divided into three social classes, of which the warriors formed the aristocracy. The leading clan bore the name of

ACHEMENIDÆ, and from them the Persian kings were descended. Like the Medes, the Persians fell under the power of Assyria, and their land became a province of that great empire.

When Nineveh was taken by the joint forces of Cyaxares and Nabopolassar, the supremacy of the Medes over the Persian principalities was established, and the cruelty of the conquerors is described in Ezekiel xxxii. 24. We have already seen that Cyrus became the conqueror of Media, deposing Astyages, the reigning monarch. He then conquered Lydia, besieging Croesus in Sardis, his capital, and thus added Asia Minor to his dominions.

The siege of Babylon followed, and again he was successful, climbing almost to the position of universal monarch of the East.

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## HISTORY OF GREECE.

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### PERIOD IV.

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ABOUT the beginning of this period war broke out between Sparta and Messina, the rich lands of which the Spartans had long coveted. It lasted twenty years, and the Messinians at length shut themselves up in Ithome, which was bravely defended by ARISTODEMUS, a Messinian hero; but after his death, which took place by his own hand, his countrymen were unable to hold out against their enemies, and Messina fell into Spartan hands.

About the year B.C. 685, a second Messinian war broke out, headed by ARISTOMENES (a youth descended from the ancient line of Messinian kings) who resolved to free his countrymen from the Spartan yoke. Argos and Arcadia took the side of the Messinians, and many victories were gained over the Spartans; but at length Aristomenes was overcome, and his people took refuge in Arcadia. Some of his descendants in after years passed over to Sicily, and took a town which they named MESSENE, in remembrance of their own country, and to this day it is called Messina.

The Athenians remained in a state of confusion and discord until a great reformer appeared, who was descended from one of their early kings. This was

SOLON, one of the wisest lawgivers who ever lived. The power of the Archons was lessened, and councils or courts were appointed, to judge criminals and settle disputes. The most celebrated of these was the court of Areopagus, and such was its reputation for integrity and discernment, that the Romans sometimes referred cases which were too intricate for their own decision to the determination of this tribunal. Solon lessened the rewards of the victors at the Olympic and Isthmian games, and bestowed the money thus saved upon the widows and orphans of those who had fallen in the service of their country. No one was allowed to speak evil of the dead, or revile another in public. It was death for an Archon to be seen intoxicated.

Having settled the government of his country, Solon resolved to visit foreign lands. During his absence an aspiring Athenian named PISISTRATUS usurped the government, and became the head of the Democratic party. Solon foreseeing that if he remained in Athens he should witness evils which it was not in his power to prevent, went into voluntary exile, where he died at an advanced age. The character of Pisistratus, as a ruler, is worthy of admiration. He was a great encourager of learning; and during his administration Athens first became a literary city. At this time the title of TYRANT was given by the Greeks to the chief ruler of a free state. Pisistratus is therefore commonly called the TYRANT OF ATHENS.

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## HISTORY OF ROME.

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### PERIOD IV.

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ROMULUS having slain his brother

REMUS, became sole governor of the city which was destined to rule the world. He may be regarded as the great author of the outlines of the Roman constitution, social, civil, and military. His institutions were derived from the Latins, the Sabines, and the Etruscans, and he reigned over a people formed from those three nations. He was succeeded by

NUMA POMPILIUS, a Sabine, elected by the Senate. His first care was to regulate the laws of property. He divided among the citizens the lands that Romulus had conquered, and founded the worship of TERMINUS, the god of Boundaries, thus protecting the limit of estates by a religious sanction.

Pretending to be secretly guided by the goddess Egeria, he framed the entire ritual law of the Romans. He reigned forty years, and the temple of Janus, which he had erected, and ordered to be opened only in the time of war, remained closed during the entire period. After an interregnum

TULLUS HOSTILIUS, the son of a Roman captain, was chosen king. War broke out with the Albans, but a battle was averted by a combat between three brothers

on each side, the Horatii, and the Curatii, whose mothers were sisters. The three latter and two of the former fell upon the field. Alba thus became subject to Rome, and Tullus next waged successful war against the Latins and the Sabines.

ANCUS MARTIUS, said to have been the grandson of Numa, succeeded. Like his ancestor he turned his attention to the regulation of religious ceremonies; but his peaceful labours were interrupted by a war with the Latins, whom he subdued. His conquests also extended into Etruria. He founded the town and port of Ostia, which was the first naval establishment. A new line of fortifications, the first bridge across the Tiber, and the first public prison, now the oldest remaining monument in Rome, are generally ascribed to this king.

Of still greater importance was his legal constitution of the Plebeian order in the state, and the assignment of lands to this body, from the conquered territories.

TARQUINIUS PRISCUS next obtained the crown by intrigue, but governed with equity. His name is rendered memorable by the stupendous public works undertaken for the security and improvement of the city, especially the CLOACA MAXIMA and other great sewers for draining the swampy land in the vicinity of the city. He also instituted the Roman games, which were celebrated annually in September. Tarquinius was assassinated after a reign of 38 years, and his son-in-law

SERVIUS TULLIUS was unanimously chosen king by the Senate. His military fame was far inferior to his

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political glory, for his institutions became the framework of the future republic. He formed a federal union between the Latin cities, Rome being acknowledged as the metropolis. He admitted the Plebeians to a participation in the civil government, and instituted the Census, or record of the property possessed by the citizens. His wise and beneficent laws were received by the Patricians with sullenness and anger. Indignant at the restraints imposed upon their oppression, they entered into a conspiracy with

LUCIUS TARQUINIUS, murdered their aged king, and placed their chosen sovereign on the throne. This Tarquin, generally called

SUPERBUS, or The Proud, gratified his supporters by diminishing the privileges of the Plebeians, but the Patricians themselves soon felt the weight of his tyranny. He built the celebrated temple of Jupiter, known as the Capitol. He was not however destined to die upon the throne.

A conspiracy was formed against the family by Brutus who obtained a decree from the Senate, for the banishment of Tarquin, and the abolition of royalty. Brutus, was hailed as the deliverer of the people, and a republican form of government was substituted for the regal power.

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## HISTORY OF LYDIA.

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PERIOD IV.

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THE small province of Lydia derived its name from LYDUS, one of the early kings of the first dynasties. Little is known of its history until the time of

CANDAULES, who was murdered at the instigation of his Queen by

GYGES, a Lydian nobleman, who founded the dynasty of the Mermnadæ under whose sway Lydia rose to great power.

Another king

ALYATTES, waged war against the Medes for six years, and was one of the kings who were so terrified at the eclipse of the sun (which took place B.C. 601) that he fled from the field of battle. He was the father of the celebrated

CRÆSUS, who subdued all the Grecian states in Asia Minor. The magnificence of his court at Sardis attracted visitors from different countries, and amongst them the celebrated Solon. The story goes that he refused to declare Cræsus perfectly happy notwithstanding all his wealth and prosperity, until he knew the termination of his career. The Lydian monarch was deeply offended, but ere long he was defeated by Cyrus and taken prisoner. Being sentenced to

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death he exclaimed, when placed on the funeral pile, "O Solon, Solon." Cyrus asked the meaning of the invocation, and not only spared the life of Cræsus but made him his friend and counsellor.

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## HISTORY OF PHŒNICIA.

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PERIOD IV.

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THE Phœnicians, like the Philistines, were a Hamite race, forming part of the great Canaanite nation who were driven out by the children of Israel. Their narrow and short line of coast was rich in excellent harbours, and flanked with lofty and wooded mountains. Their attention was thus naturally turned towards the sea, which formed their western boundary; and they became the greatest maritime nation of antiquity, and Sidon, their capital, the most ancient commercial city in the world. They were the inventors of money, as a medium of exchange, and of a regular system of weights and measures; as well as the discoverers of the celebrated purple dye, used only for the robes of kings and princes. The manufacture of glass has also been attributed to them, and the invention of written characters or letters which they probably borrowed from the Egyptians. The ancient city of Tyre was originally a Sidonian colony, but rose rapidly above the parent state, and became the centre of the world's commerce.

The first sovereign was

ABICAL, who was contemporary with David, and the father of

HIRAM, with whose name we are familiar in the Bible. The Phœnician princes always shewed great anxiety to cultivate friendly relations with the Israelitish kings, and we never read of a war between these two nations.

The Phœnicians excelled in the arts in which the Israelites were deficient, while they were dependent on the latter for a supply of corn, wine, and oil. The royal palace of David, on Mount Zion, was built by Tyrian artizans, and the Master of the Works who superintended the erection of the Temple was also a native of Tyre, furnished by Hiram (and of the same name), as well as the exquisite cedar-wood, at the request of Solomon.

The payment made to Hiram was, we are told, in agricultural produce, corn, wine, and oil. His most remarkable successors were

ETHBAAL I., father of the wicked Jezebel, during whose reign some important colonies were founded in Africa, and

PYGMALION, who coveting the immense riches of Sichæus, his brother-in-law, caused him to be secretly assassinated. Dido, the widow of Sichæus, aided by numerous Tyrians, escaped by sea with her husband's treasures, and landing on the northern shores of Africa, erected the city of Carthage, which soon rivalled Tyre itself in commercial prosperity.

In 734 Tyre successfully resisted the attacks of Shalmaneser, king of Assyria, but under Nebuchadnezzar, king of Babylon, it was so exhausted by a thirteen years' siege, that it was obliged to submit.

Old Tyre, on the mainland, was taken, but a great

body of the inhabitants had previously sought refuge upon a neighbouring island, where they already had large commercial establishments, and thus New Tyre rose into notice.

Soon after this event a change was made in the form of government; annual magistrates called SHOPHETIM (the same word as the judges in Israel) or SUFFETES being chosen instead of kings.

After the great Cyrus had conquered Babylon the Phœnician cities submitted of their own accord; but though they became dependencies of the Persian empire, they were permitted to retain their native governments. The most perfect record in existence, of the ancient condition of Tyre, is that furnished by the prophet Ezekiel: see chap. xxvii.

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## HISTORY OF SYRIA.

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### PERIOD IV.

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SYRIA was originally divided into a number of petty states, with the names of some of which we are familiar in the Bible. Thus *e.g.* we read of the kings of Arpad, of Zobah, of Hamath, &c. Most of these were subdued by David, but towards the close of Solomon's reign

REZIN, who had been originally a slave, threw off the yoke, and founded the Syrian kingdom of Damascus.

BENHADAD I., one of his successors, was the king whom Asa bribed to assist him against Baasha, king of Israel. It was then that this Syrian monarch took the cities of Israel mentioned in 1 Kings xv. 20.

BENHADAD II., who succeeded his father, desiring to put an end to the Kingdom of Israel, besieged Samaria, followed by 32 other kings, or heads of tribes, but he was defeated by Ahab, and one hundred thousand Syrians perished on the field of battle.

After this a treaty of peace was concluded, but war again broke out, and while Ahab was endeavouring to rescue Ramoth-Gilead from the Syrians he perished. During the reign of his son Jehoram, Benhadad again besieged Samaria, which was nearly reduced by

famine, when a sudden panic seized the Syrian troops, so that they fled with precipitation, and their rich spoils fell into the hands of the Israelites : see 2 Kings vii. Benhadad was murdered by

HAZAEL, one of his officers, who usurped the vacant throne. He was a warlike prince, and gained several brilliant victories over the forces of Judah and Israel, compelling the monarchs of both kingdoms to resign several important provinces, and pay him tribute. He also made himself master of Elath, on the Red Sea, and greatly increased the commercial prosperity of his dominions. But these advantages were lost under the reign of his inglorious son

BENHADAD III. The Syrians recovered some of their power under

REZIN, the next king, who entered into an alliance with Pekah, king of Israel, against Ahaz, king of Judah. The latter sought the protection of Tiglath Pileser, king of Assyria, who marched against Damascus and captured the city, dragged the inhabitants away captive, killed Rezin, and put an end to the kingdom.

Syria, repopled by Assyrian colonists, became one of the many provinces of that great empire, and on the fall of Nineveh fell under the Babylonian yoke.

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## HISTORY OF THE ISRAELITES.

## PERIOD IV.

Prophets of Judah.	Years reigned.	Kings of Judah.	Years B.C.	Kings of Israel.	Years reigned.	Prophets of Israel.
Micah .....	16	Ahaz .....	742	.....	.....	Oded
.....	.....	.....	739	Hoshea kills Pekah	.....	
.....	.....	.....	.....	Anarchy for some	.....	
.....	.....	.....	.....	years	.....	
.....	.....	.....	730	Hoshea settled in	9	
Nahum ...	29	Hezekiah .....	736	the kingdom ...	.....	
.....	.....	.....	721	Kingdom of Israel	.....	
Joel .....	55	Manasseh .....	698	overthrown by	.....	
.....	2	Amon .....	643	the Assyrians ...	.....	
Jeremiah	31	Josiah .....	641	.....	.....	
Habakkuk	3 mo	Jehoahaz or	610	.....	.....	
.....	.....	Shallum .....	.....	.....	.....	
Zephaniah	11	Jehoiakim .....	610	.....	.....	
Ezekiel ...	3 mo	Jehoiachin or	.....	.....	.....	
.....	.....	Jeconiah or	.....	.....	.....	
Daniel .....	.....	Coniah .....	599	.....	.....	
Obadiah ...	11	Zedekiah .....	599	.....	.....	
.....	.....	Judah carried	588	.....	.....	
.....	.....	captive to	.....	.....	.....	
.....	.....	Babylon .....	.....	.....	.....	



## PERIOD V.

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*Began with the Taking of Babylon by Cyrus B.C. 538.  
Ended with the death of Alexander the Great B.C. 323.*

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### HISTORY OF PERSIA.

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#### PERIOD V.

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UPON the accession of Cyrus to the throne of the Medes and Persians, he issued an edict (B.C. 536) permitting the captive Jews to return to their native land, and re-build the temple of Jerusalem. From a careful study of his history, as given by Persian authorities, we may gather that he was the leader of a religious, as well as of a political, revolution. There has long been a tradition in the East that ZOROASTER, the great Persian legislator, was the disciple of the prophet Daniel. Now, it is well known, that the Jews view Daniel with great suspicion, asserting that he refused to return to Jerusalem with his countrymen, and become the vizier of Cyrus, at Persepolis; moreover, that he broke through the exclusive principle, so conspicuous in the Jewish creed, by communicating to the Gentiles the know-

ledge of Jehovah. If this be so, the great favor shown by this monarch to the Jews becomes perfectly intelligible.

Cyrus next subdued Lydia and Ionia, and while thus extending his conquests in all directions, he also gave stability and vigour to the laws and government of Persia. According to Herodotus he next marched against the Massagetæ, a nation who dwelt beyond the river Araxes, and were at this time ruled by a queen named Tomyris. In a fierce battle which ensued, Cyrus was killed, and his son

CAMBYSES II. succeeded to the throne. He was totally unlike his noble father, being cruel, rapacious, and effeminate. His first enterprise was a successful one, viz., the conquest of Egypt, in which he was aided by Phanes, a Greek deserter. He exercised the utmost tyranny over the conquered nation, and made himself still further detested at home by the murder of his brother Smerdis, of whose existence he was jealous. The Magi, taking advantage of the discontented state of public feeling in Persia, excited a revolution, and one of them whose name was

SMERDIS, and who bore a remarkable likeness to the murdered son of Cyrus, was proclaimed king, pretending to be the brother of Cambyses. The king, on hearing of this revolt, hastily left Egypt for Persia, but on reaching Ecbatan he died of an accidental wound inflicted by his own sword, and having no heirs the Kaianian dynasty became extinct (B.C. 522). The pretended Smerdis reigned only seven months, for the Persians, discovering the fraud, and indignant at the supremacy of a Mede, rose

up, and destroyed the usurper, and chose for their sovereign or darawesh a Persian noble named Hystaspes, who used the old title of royalty as a proper name, and is generally called

DARIUS HYSTASPES. When established on the throne he persecuted the Magi with great severity, and to secure his title married Atossa, daughter of Cyrus.

The first event of his reign was the revolt of the Babylonians, who were discontented with their subject and subordinate position, and profited by the insurrection of the Magi to try and shake off the Persian yoke. Babylon sustained a siege of twenty months, and was then reduced by stratagem. A Persian noble mutilated himself, and went over to the citizens as a deserter who had escaped from the inhuman cruelty of Darius. His tale was believed, and he was entrusted with the command of an important post, which he betrayed to his king, who thus became master of the rebellious city.

A very remarkable bas-relief has lately been discovered in Kurdestan, the inscriptions on which have been deciphered, and prove that not Babylon only, but ten of the other satrapies revolted against Darius and tried to render themselves independent; among them were Media, Susiana, Parthia, and Armenia. These ten rebel chiefs are represented as appearing before Darius in chains, and their names are given in the inscription.

The attention of Darius was next directed to Western Europe. Cyrus had conquered Asia, and Cambyses Africa. Why should not *he* add Europe to his dominions?

Successful at first, he made himself master of Thrace, and proceeded to invade Scythia. He crossed the Danube on a bridge of boats, and advanced, at first, without opposition; but the irregular cavalry of those barbarous tribes at length forced him to make a retreat, and his safety was purchased by the loss of the greater part of his followers. He narrowly escaped a greater danger. Miltiades, Tyrant of the Thracian Chersonese, proposed to the Ionians, who were guarding the bridge of boats for Darius, to break it up, and seize the opportunity to free themselves from his yoke, but Hystiæus, Tyrant of Miletus, defeated these counsels, and prevented what would indeed have been a catastrophe to the Persians.

He was ill-rewarded for his services, and his brother, Aristagoras, indignant at the treatment of his uncle, went into Greece to rouse the principal cities to rebellion against the Persians. The Athenians gladly promised assistance, and their example was followed by the Eretrians. With such weak support Aristagoras raised the standard of revolt. His bold efforts were at first crowned with success; he burned Sardis to the ground, but subsequently meeting with some reverses, he was deserted by his disheartened party, and the insurrection was completely suppressed. Darius punished the rebels severely, and resolved to extend his vengeance to their Grecian allies. He collected a large naval and military force, which he entrusted to the command of his son-in-law, Mar-donius. The latter crossed the Hellespont into Thrace, and subdued the island of Thasus and the kingdom of Macedon. But his fleet was shattered

by a storm, and his army was unexpectedly attacked by Thracian tribes, by whom he was severely wounded, and returned disgraced to Persia.

Nothing daunted, Darius fitted out a second expedition, which he placed under the command of Datis and Artaphernes. Their defeat was prompt and decisive. The Athenians met them under Miltiades, and gained the memorable battle of Marathon (B.C. 490).

To avenge these losses, Darius resolved to invade Greece in person; but an insurrection of the Egyptians, and disputes among his children respecting the succession, delayed his purpose, and death put an end to his designs (B.C. 485).

During his reign, great changes were made in the internal organization of the Persian empire. He made Susa his capital, and divided his vast dominions into twenty provinces, the governors of which were called *Satraps*. They were appointed or re-called by himself, and the smallest disobedience was punished with death. Darius also organized a system of postal communication throughout the empire by means of couriers. He was succeeded by his son

XERXES, who at once marched against and subdued the Egyptian rebels. Elated by his success, he prepared to invade Greece, at the head of the largest army which had ever been assembled. He crossed the Hellespont on a bridge of boats, and caused a canal to be cut through the Isthmus of Mount Athos to facilitate the passage of his fleet, but on the very threshold of Greece, at the mountain pass of Thermopylæ, he was repulsed by three hundred brave

Spartans, under their king, Leonidas. They fell overpowered by numbers, and Xerxes entered Greece—but not to conquer.\* After unparalleled losses both by sea and land, he returned to Persia, covered with disgrace. The forces which he left behind him, under Mardonius, were annihilated at the battle of Plateæ, and the Greeks following up their success, destroyed the power of the Persians in the Mediterranean, and made them tremble for the security of their provinces in Asia Minor. Xerxes was murdered by Artabanus, one of the captains of his army (B.C. 470), and his eldest son shared his fate. The assassin conferred the crown on

ARTAXERXES I., the third son, hoping to reign in his name, but the first act of the young king was to revenge the murder of his father and brother, by causing Artabanus and his accomplices to be executed. He was a just and beneficent prince, but his virtues were insufficient to check the decline of the empire, which began to exhibit signs of weakness in every quarter.

This king greatly favored the Jews. Nehemiah was his cup-bearer, and was permitted by him to go to his own land, and rebuild the walls of Jerusalem. Artaxerxes was succeeded by his son

XERXES II., but within forty-five days he was murdered by his illegitimate brother

SOGDIANUS,—and he again was deposed by Ochus, who is generally called

DARIUS II. or NOTHUS. Under his administration the empire rapidly declined, owing to the increasing power and turbulence of the provincial satraps. At

\* See History of Greece, Period V.

this time, also, Egypt threw off the Persian yoke. On the death of Darius II. his son

ARTAXERXES II., surnamed MNEMON, ascended the throne (B.C. 405), but was opposed by his brother Cyrus, who levied an army of Greek malcontents, and proceeded to Thapsacus, on the Euphrates, where he openly proclaimed his designs on the throne. On reaching Cunaxa, near Babylon, a battle took place between the two brothers. Cyrus was killed, and his ten thousand Greek allies seemed doomed to destruction, but under the guidance of Xenophon, the historian, who was a renegade Athenian, they accomplished a retreat, fighting their way back again to their native shores. During the remainder of his reign Artaxerxes was the mere puppet of his mother Parysatis, and the palace became the scene of incessant assassinations. Meanwhile, Agesilaus, king of Sparta, was making rapid conquests in Western Persia. Cyprus regained its independence. The spirit of revolt spread through Asia; and crushed by domestic, as well as national misfortunes, Artaxerxes died of a broken heart.

His son Ochus succeeded, and took the name of

ARTAXERXES III. (B.C. 360). To secure his position he put to death one hundred and eighty of the royal family. He was as conspicuous for his military prowess as for his crimes. Artabazus, the satrap of Asia Minor, made a vigorous effort to seize the throne, but was unsuccessful. Ochus next marched against the Phœnician insurgents, and levelled the city of Sidon with the ground. He also recovered Cyprus. But he was at length poisoned by Bagoas, who placed

ARCES the youngest son of Ochus, on the throne. After a brief reign Bagoas poisoned him also, and transferred the crown to

DARIUS CODOMANNUS (B.C. 336), hoping to retain the real power in his own hands, but finding that Darius intended to act for himself, Bagoas resolved to remove him also. The treachery was discovered, and he was forced by the king to drink the poison he had prepared for his sovereign. But the Persian empire was now tottering to its fall.

Alexander the Great appeared in Asia, and his small, but brave army, scattered the Persian hosts, like chaff before the wind. After the loss of two battles, Issus and Arbela, Darius while seeking refuge in a remote part of his empire was murdered, and Asia received a new master.\*

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\* See History of Macedon, Period V.



## HISTORY OF EGYPT.

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PERIOD V.

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ON the death of his father Amasis

PSAMMENITUS succeeded to the throne, and stationing his army at Pelusium, awaited the approach of the Persian army under Cambyses (the son of Cyrus), who aspired to make himself master of the only great western power which his father had not subdued. This important garrison was taken, and the conquerors advanced to Memphis.

After a short struggle, not only Egypt but the neighbouring countries, Libya, Cyrene, and Barca, submitted themselves to the Persian power, thus fulfilling the prophecy of Ezekiel xxx. 3—19. Cambyses was the deadly enemy of the religion, and the priestly caste of the Egyptians. He slew their sacred animals, destroyed their idols, and pillaged their temples. Thus a national animosity naturally existed between the two nations, producing oppression on the one side, and frequent rebellion on the other.

During the reign of Darius Nothus, king of Persia, the Egyptians even succeeded in completely freeing their country from the foreign yoke, and

AMYRTÆUS of Saïs became the independent master of Egypt. During the reign of one of his successors,

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NECTANEBO II., the struggle with Persia re-commenced. The Egyptian king being totally defeated by Darius Ochus, or Artaxerxes III., retired into Ethiopia, and Egypt once more became a Persian province. When Alexander the Great undertook the conquest of Persia, Egypt submitted to him without a struggle. His first care was to prove to the Egyptians that he was come to re-establish their ancient monarchy. He went in state to the temple of Apis, at Memphis, and sacrificed to the sacred bull. He next resolved to visit the temple of Amun-Re, or Jupiter Ammon, in the northern oasis of the Libyan desert. Accordingly he floated down the Nile to Canopus, sailed westward along the coast, and landed at Rhacotis, a small village on the spot where Alexandria now stands. One glance was sufficient to shew him that the place was formed, by nature, to be a great harbour, and might become the port of all Egypt. Orders were given to Dinocrates, the architect, to lay down the plan of a new city to be called after its founder; and the success of this undertaking proved to after generations the wisdom of the great conqueror. Having laid his offerings in the temple of the Egyptian god, Alexander returned to Memphis, and made arrangements for the government of his new kingdom. He divided the country into two nomarchies, at the head of which he placed native judges, and gave orders that the provinces should be ruled, and justice administered according to Egyptian laws and customs. The garrisons he left under the command of his own Greek generals, and then returned to Persia. During his absence Egypt remained toler-

ably quiet, although Cleomenes—the prefect and collector of taxes—proved wholly unworthy of his position, and caused great dissatisfaction among the Macedonian soldiers.

Egypt was destined to be the resting-place of Alexander in death. On his death-bed he gave orders that his body should be conveyed to the temple of Amun in Libya, but instead of this, it was carried to Memphis, and eventually deposited at Alexandria.

## HISTORY OF GREECE.

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PERIOD V.

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THE sons of Pisistratus, HIPPIAS AND HIPPARCHUS, succeeded to the authority of their father, and for some time imitated his bright example. Their court was the resort of men of learning and genius, and during their administration, Athens first became remarkable for the splendour of its public buildings, and for the diligent cultivation of the fine arts. But at length they abused their power, and a conspiracy was formed against them, at the head of which were Harmodius and Aristogeiton, who slew Hipparchus at a public festival, but perished themselves in the tumult which ensued. Hippias was expelled from Athens by the assistance of the Spartans; and CLISTHENES then aspired to be the political leader of the state. He introduced an important change in the constitution, giving the people an equal share in the government. These reforms gave birth to the Athenian Democracy, which can hardly be said to have existed before this time.

The custom known as Ostracism was introduced by Clisthenes. Its object was, quietly to remove from the state any powerful party leader who threatened to overthrow the constitution, and make himself despotic.

Upon an appointed day each citizen wrote on a tile (OSTRACON is the Greek for tile) or oyster-shell, the name of the person he considered dangerous, and if six thousand votes were recorded against one individual, he was banished from the city for ten years. It is a proof of the utility of this institution that no further attempt was made by any Athenian citizen to overthrow the democracy by force.

We must next refer to the Greek colonies in Asia Minor, which, unable to resist the might of Cyrus' victorious arm, had submitted to the Persians, and continued under their yoke, until the reign of Darius Hystaspes, when the Ionians revolted under Aristagoras (B.C. 500). They marched upon Sardis, which was burnt to the ground, but the Persian forces soon quelled the rebellion. Miletus was taken by storm, and treated with signal severity, and the subjugation of Ionia was complete. Darius never forgave the Athenians for having assisted the Ionians in their revolt, and sent heralds all over Greece, demanding earth and water, which was the Persian mode of requiring subjection. All the states submitted, except Athens, and Sparta, who sent back a haughty defiance, and fearlessly prepared to encounter the whole strength of the Persian empire. Darius entrusted the command of the first armament to his son-in-law Mardonius, but his enterprise miscarried both by sea and land. He was therefore displaced, and Datis and Artaphernes were appointed to the command of a second armament. Their fleet passed safely through the Cyclades, and arrived at the island of Eubœa, where a landing was effected. Eretria was taken by storm, and its

citizens were sent in chains to Darius. The Persians then crossed the Euripus, and by the advice of the exiled Hippias, who had fled to the Persian court, encamped with an army said to exceed five hundred thousand men, on the plains of Marathon, within thirty miles of Athens. To resist this mighty force the Athenians could only muster an army of ten thousand citizens, and about twenty thousand slaves, but they were headed by three of the greatest generals their country ever produced—Miltiades, Themistocles, and Aristides.

The superior abilities of Miltiades procured for him the supreme command, and so great was his skill that the Persians were completely routed, and fled in confusion to their ships (B.C. 490).

Miltiades subsequently tarnished his glory in an expedition against the island of Paros. He was accused of having taken a bribe, and was sentenced to pay a heavy fine, which being unable to do, he was thrown into prison, where he died of his wounds.

Themistocles, the most able statesman, and Aristides, the most uncorrupt patriot, of Greece, for a time shared the power that had been previously possessed by Miltiades.

The former increased the wealth, and extended the influence of Athens by conquering the insular states, which had submitted to the Persians; the latter won the respect of the Athenians, by the wisdom he displayed in the courts of law.

In the management of public affairs they frequently came into collision, and their struggle for power ended in the banishment of Aristides by the ostracism; but

when his wise counsels were needed, he was recalled on the motion of his successful rival. Themistocles directed all his efforts to the improvement of the naval power of Athens, and he succeeded in securing for his country the complete supremacy of the Grecian seas. The death of Darius was a fortunate event for Greece. His son Xerxes was a man of little ability, and fond of a luxurious life. He did not inherit his father's animosity against Greece, but he was surrounded by men who urged him on, to attempt its conquest. For four years the din of preparation sounded throughout Asia. His land forces were collected from forty-six different nations, his fleet was furnished by the Phœnicians and Ionians. Xerxes started from Sardis, and marched to Abydos. His army then crossed the Hellespont on two bridges, constructed of boats, but such was its magnitude, that seven days and seven nights were occupied in the passage. He then proceeded along the coast of Thrace, by Doriscus to Thermopylæ. This celebrated mountain pass was guarded by a body of Spartans, headed by their king Leonidas. They repulsed the Persians with immense loss, and Xerxes was on the point of retiring in despair, when the treachery of a deserter revealed to him a path across the mountain. Thus surprised, Leonidas, and three hundred brave Spartans who refused to quit their posts, were overpowered by numbers and slain.

Meanwhile a naval engagement had taken place between the fleets of Greece and Persia, off the Cape of Artemisium in Eubœa, in which the former took, or sank, thirty of the enemy's ships, and forced one

hundred and seventy of them to sea, where they were destroyed by a hurricane.

Xerxes now directed his march towards Athens; and Themistocles seeing the impossibility of defending it, persuaded his countrymen to abandon it for the present, and go on board the fleet. The Persians entered the deserted city and burnt it to the ground; and in the pride of success Xerxes resolved to annihilate the last hopes of Greece in a naval engagement. The Persian fleet numbered one thousand vessels, the Grecian consisted of three hundred and eighty. They encountered one another in the harbour of Salamis, and from a rocky eminence, Xerxes had the mortification of seeing his magnificent navy utterly destroyed.

Unable to endure the sight, he rent his clothes, and rushed from his temporary throne in an agony of disappointment and despair. He hastily retraced his steps, and crossing the Hellespont in a common fishing boat returned to Sardis, while Themistocles was loaded with honours. Mardonius remained behind with the remnants of the Persian army, and encamped on the plains of Platœa, where the Spartans under Pausanias gave him battle and completely defeated him. Mardonius himself was among the two hundred thousand Persians who are said to have perished in this engagement. Of the great armament which Xerxes brought into Europe, scarcely a single man survived to carry back the news of its defeat.

During the next fifty years, the Athenian republic attained the summit of its greatness, and became the first state not only of Greece, but of the civilized world. The rebuilding of Athens, and the enlarge-



ment of its fortifications excited the jealousy of the Spartans, who attempted to hinder the work; but their efforts were baffled by the skill of Themistocles, who pursued his favourite project of rendering Athens the greatest maritime and commercial power of Greece. Meanwhile Pausanias, the Spartan Regent, continued to wage war against the dependencies of the Persian empire, in the Ægean Sea, and on the coast of Thrace.

Byzantium was taken, and Cyprus freed from the Persian yoke; but the vast wealth which Pausanias acquired during this expedition proved too strong a temptation to him, and led to his downfall. He became a traitor to his country, and put himself in communication with the Persian court, offering to deliver up Sparta, and even all Greece to Xerxes, provided that monarch would give him his daughter in marriage.

He was brought to justice by his incensed countrymen, but just as the Ephors were on the point of seizing him, he took refuge in the temple of Minerva, which the people blocked up with large stones, and left him to die of cold and hunger (B.C. 475). By the artifice of the Spartans, Themistocles was involved in the fate of Pausanias. Notwithstanding his past services, he had excited the ill-will of his fellow citizens by his pride and covetousness, and having been banished by the sentence of ostracism, was then living at Argos, in exile.

He was accused of having been privy to the designs of Pausanias, and persons were sent to seize him, and bring him before the general council of Greece. He saved himself by flight, and at length went over to

Sardis, and threw himself upon the clemency of Artaxerxes, who received him with joy, and assigned him the revenues of three cities for his support.

He lived, for some time, in great splendour at Magnesia, and there died, having earned for himself the hatred of the Athenians and the reputation of a traitor. About the same time died his rival Aristides, honored, beloved, and respected by all. On his death CIMON, the son of Miltiades, became the undisputed leader of the aristocratic party at Athens. He continued the war against the Persians with vigor, reducing all their cities and forts, not only in Europe, but even on the coast of Asia. In 470 B.C. he completely destroyed the whole Persian navy off the coast of Cyprus; and then surprised the Persian camp at the mouth of the river Eurymedon, and completed their destruction. But whilst Cimon was thus gaining such renown abroad, he had a rival at home, who though himself of high birth, embraced the popular cause. This was PERICLES—the greatest statesman of antiquity—whose growing influence procured the temporary banishment of Cimon. After his recall he continued the war against Persia, and died of his wounds. A treaty was at length concluded by which it was stipulated that all the Greek cities in Asia should be free; that no Persian army should come within three days' march of the coast, and that no Persian vessel should appear in the ÆGEAN SEA. Thus ended the Persian wars, which had lasted for fifty-one years (B.C. 449).

Meanwhile war had broken out between Athens and Sparta, who had hitherto been allies.

For a time the Athenians carried everything before them, but their acquisitions on land vanished more speedily than they had been acquired, and both the present position, and future prospects of Athens were so alarming, that at the beginning of the year B.C. 445 a thirty years' truce was concluded with Sparta and her allies, by which the Athenians consented to abandon all the acquisitions which they had made in Peloponnesus.

Another great political leader at this time arose, who headed the aristocratical party at Athens, and thus became the rival of Pericles. This was THUCYDIDES, who opposed the idea of extending the Athenian dominions at the risk of incurring the hostility of the other Grecian states. Pericles easily procured the ostracism of his rival, and for the remainder of his life enjoyed the sole direction of affairs. He availed himself of the interval of peace to press forward the great works undertaken for the defence or embellishment of Athens. The Long Walls were completed, and the Parthenon, Propylæa, and Odeum were erected. It was at this time that Phidias, the sculptor, Polygnotus, the painter, and many other men of genius lived and flourished; for Pericles seems to have combined the characters of patriot, statesman, orator, general, and leader of the public taste. But a storm was gathering which was destined finally to crush the Athenian power. It often happens that a colony out-grows the mother-state—and this was now nearly the case with Corcyra, a colony of Corinth. A quarrel broke out between the two, and Athens was appealed to, as the head of the

maritime states, to decide it. By the advice of Pericles, a defensive alliance was concluded with the Corcyreans, and thus Corinth became the open enemy of Athens, and watched for an opportunity of revenge. About the same time, a war was going on in Macedonia between Perdiccas, the king of that country, and his brother, Philip. The Athenians took the part of the latter, whereupon Perdiccas exerted all his efforts to incite rebellion among the Athenian colonies in Macedonia. One of these was Potidæa, which openly raised the standard of revolt (B.C. 432); and was immediately blockaded by land and sea. The Potidæans sought aid from the Corinthians, who in their turn sent ambassadors to all the Peloponnesian states, and especially to Sparta, urging the formation of a confederacy, to check a power whose pretensions threatened the independence of all the Grecian communities. War was proclaimed, and the Spartan King ARCHIDAMUS elected chief of the Peloponnesian confederates. Athens, supported by the insular and maritime states, was supreme mistress of the sea: Sparta, on the other hand, was superior by land.

A Spartan army ravaged Attica, an Athenian fleet plundered the coasts of the Peloponnesus. The Spartans were thus forced to return home, to defend their own country; and no sooner had they withdrawn, than Pericles invaded Megaris and laid it desolate. In B.C. 430 Archidamus again invaded Attica, but the Athenians were at the same time attacked by a more formidable enemy. At the desire of Pericles, the greater part of the population of Attica had taken refuge in the capital; and now a plague of unparalleled

virulence broke out in the city ; which became a scene of death. Pericles himself was one of its victims (B.C. 429). Archidamus next directed his whole force against Platæa, which after a brave defence, yielded to the Spartans, and the garrison was mercilessly butchered (B.C. 427).

The presence of the Athenian fleet in the Ionian Sea rendered Western Greece also the scene of war ; and Demosthenes its commander subdued all the allies of the Peloponnesians in Ætolia and Epirus. But, in other places, these triumphs were counter-balanced by Spartan victories, won by BRASIDAS, a celebrated general, whose conquering career turned the tide in favour of Sparta. His death in B.C. 422 induced the Spartans to sue for peace, and a treaty for fifty years was concluded (B.C. 421), generally called the Peace of Nicias, because it was brought about by that Athenian general. By the terms of this treaty, Sparta sacrificed the interests of her allies in favor of her own ; and the latter consequently viewed it with jealousy and distrust. It was not long before a Second Peloponnesian war broke out, for Nicias, whose policy was pacific, was soon supplanted in the public favor by

ALCIBIADES, the nephew of Pericles, a man of unbounded ambition and unscrupulous principles. After two years of petty warfare in Greece, he undertook the invasion of Sicily, hoping to establish the Athenian supremacy in that island. The most powerful armament which had ever left a Grecian port was speedily prepared, and entrusted to the joint command of Alcibiades, Nicias, and Lamachus. They met, at

first, with brilliant success. Catana and Naxos were taken, and Messina was about to surrender, when Alcibiades was summoned home, to be tried for his life on a charge of sacrilege and impiety. He saved himself by flight, and retired to Sparta; and there, thirsting for revenge, devised measures which ultimately ended in the ruin of his country.

He induced the Spartans to send aid to the Syracusans, and the arrival of Gylippus, a great Spartan general, soon changed the fortune of the war. A new armament was sent from Athens, under the command of Demosthenes, but in vain. The Athenians were defeated; Nicias and Demosthenes were both put to death, and the common soldiers were sold as slaves. This terrible calamity was fatal to the power of Athens. After a while Alcibiades was re-called by his countrymen, and now, in turn, revenged himself upon the Spartans, who had banished him, by attacking their fleet and destroying it in the harbour of Cyzicus. Their cause was, however, retrieved by the crafty general, LYSANDER, who procured the assistance of the Persian prince Cyrus, who had been entrusted by his father, Darius Nothus, with the satrapy of Asia Minor. The combined fleets attacked the Athenian admiral at the mouth of the Ægos-potamos, near Sestos, and totally annihilated their navy. One vessel, alone, proceeded to Athens to bear the sad tidings of the country's ruin. Resistance was no longer possible. They had but to prepare for the arrival of Lysander, and the horrors of a long siege. On his way he took possession of many Athenian towns; and then proceeded to devastate Salamis, and

blockade Piræus; while, at the same time, the whole Peloponnesian army was marched into Attica, and encamped at the very gates of Athens. Famine soon began to be felt within its walls, and at last accomplished the designs of Lysander. The humiliated Athenians were forced to accept terms of peace. These were:—That the Long Walls and the fortifications of Piræus should be demolished; that the Athenians should give up all their foreign possessions, surrender all their ships of war, and become allies of Sparta. In March, B.C. 404, Lysander took formal possession of Athens, and presided at the work of destruction and demolition. He proved to be the worst oppressor that had ever been raised to power. He abolished the Democracy, and appointed thirty supreme rulers, generally known as the THIRTY TYRANTS. Theirs was truly a reign of terror, and it is said that twelve hundred Athenians suffered death at their hands. Alcibiades, now in exile, was one of their victims. But their tyranny lasted only eight months. Soon the number of fugitives and exiles became so great that they banded together, and under the guidance of Thrasybulus seized Phyle, a strong fortress on the frontiers of Attica and Bœotia, whence they opened a communication with the enemies of the Tyrants in the city. A battle ensued, and the Thirty were overthrown. Critias (a pupil of Socrates), one of the worst of the Tyrants, was killed, the rest were expelled, and ten new magistrates were elected in their stead. These emulated the wickedness of their predecessors, and to secure their power sought assistance from Sparta. Lysander advanced to their aid, but his pride and

ambition had given deep offence in Sparta, and PAUSANIAS, a Lacedemonian king, marched a second army to frustrate the plans of Lysander. Under his protection, the despots were stripped of power, the ancient constitution of Athens was restored, and the Spartan garrison withdrawn from the citadel. It was about this time that the great and virtuous Socrates was condemned to death (B.C. 400), on a frivolous accusation, and the Athenians thus deprived themselves of their greatest and most original philosopher. The persecution raised against him extended also to his disciples, who were forced to seek safety in exile.

While these events were passing in Athens, Asia was the scene of a memorable struggle, in which the Greeks greatly distinguished themselves. Cyrus, the younger son of Darius Nothus, urged by his mother, Parysatis, resolved to attempt the overthrow of his brother Artaxerxes Mnemon. He, therefore, renewed his alliance with the Spartans, and an army of thirteen thousand Greeks enlisted under his banner. They advanced without opposition into the very heart of the Persian empire, but at Cunaxa the troops of Artaxerxes gave them battle. The Greeks totally defeated the wing of the Persians to which they were opposed, but the death of Cyrus rendered their victory useless. They found themselves surrounded by enemies, and in a situation which appeared hopeless. It was at this crisis in their history that Xenophon undertook to guide them to their own shores, and their RETREAT thus accomplished, in safety, is one of the most celebrated exploits recorded in military



annals. The remnant of the TEN THOUSAND entered the service of the Spartans, and were sent to protect the Greek cities of Asia Minor from the threatened vengeance of Artaxerxes. A desultory war ensued, productive of no important result, until the command of the Greek forces was given to Agesilaus, king of Sparta, who would probably have succeeded in shaking the Persian throne, had not the tyranny of his countrymen at home provoked the general enmity of all the Grecian states, and kindled a THIRD PELOPONNESIAN war. A league for mutual protection was formed by the republics of Athens, Argos, Thebes, and Corinth, and acceded to by most of the colonies in Thrace and Macedon. Agesilaus, hastily returning from Asia, met the confederates at Coronea, and gave them battle; but though successful, he lost the bravest of the Spartan veterans, and was himself dangerously wounded.

Meanwhile the Spartan fleet had been attacked and annihilated off the harbour of Cnidus by Conon, an Athenian admiral, who had taken refuge with the king of Cyprus. Thus the empire of Sparta over the maritime states was irretrievably destroyed. Conon availed himself of this success to restore, not only the independence of Athens, but her supremacy in the Ægean Sea. He conducted his victorious fleet to the principal islands and colonies, and induced them to renew their allegiance to their ancient mistress. He also, by the help of Persian money, rebuilt the Long Walls of Athens.

Sparta, finding that she could no longer maintain her superiority in Greece, began to sue with the

Persians for peace, and persuaded Artaxerxes that Conon meditated a revolt of the Greeks in Asia.

He listened to their treacherous insinuations. Conon was seized and murdered in prison, and a Spartan named Antalcidas concluded a disgraceful treaty, by which Artaxerxes was to become master of all the Greek cities in Asia, including the island of Cyprus, and the peninsula of Clazomenæ; and the republics of Greece were declared independent of each other (B.C. 387).

Sparta's object was really to break up the confederacies under Athens and Thebes, and with the assistance of Persia, to pave the way for her own absolute dominion in Greece. She first sent an army to reduce Olynthus. But it was four years before the inhabitants were humbled. Meanwhile PHŒBIDAS, a Spartan general, in violation of the laws of nations, seized the Cadmea, or citadel of Thebes. The chief of the Theban patriots fled to Athens, and an oligarchy of traitors was established, under the protection of the Spartan garrison. PELOPIDAS, one of the exiles, concerted a bold plan for the liberation of his country. He and his colleagues entered the city in disguise, slew the principal tyrants, besieged the citadel, and forced the Spartan garrison to capitulate. Chosen general by his grateful countrymen, Pelopidas, at the head of three hundred Thebans, known as the SACRED BAND, gained two splendid victories at Tanagra and Tegyra; and by his valor, and that of his friend EPAMINONDAS, Thebes was now able to threaten the rest of Greece with subjection.

Sparta, resolving to humble the pride of her rival,

sent Cleombrotus to invade Bœotia. Epaminondas met him on the memorable field of LEUCTRA and won a decisive victory, the result of which was, that numbers of Greek cities which had remained neutral now declared in favor of the Thebans, and increased their army to seventy thousand men. With this mighty force, Epaminondas entered Laconia, and overran the open country, where the face of an enemy had not been seen for five centuries. He re-instated the Messinians in their native land, and rebuilt the ancient city of Messene, on the spot where Ithome had stood, placing a Theban garrison in its citadel.

His attention, however, was now distracted by a new enemy. The Thessalians had rebelled against their tyrant, Alexander, a monster of wickedness, and sought help of the Thebans. Pelopidas was sent to their assistance, and overawed by his presence Alexander submitted; but watched his opportunity, and subsequently threw Pelopidas into prison. Epaminondas, then leaving the Peloponessus, marched into Thessaly to release his friend, and soon forced the tyrant to unconditional submission. Epaminondas had succeeded in his great object—that of making *Thebes* supreme over the other states of Greece; but her power, rapidly acquired, was destined rapidly to decay. Epaminondas for the fourth time invaded the Peloponessus, but met with only partial success. At length at the battle of MANTINEA he fell, in the arms of victory. His friend, Pelopidas, had been killed in the same manner in a battle against Alexander of Thessaly; and the glory of Thebes perished with the two great men who had raised

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her to fame. Thus ended the Third Peloponnesian war.

Athens, Sparta, and Thebes having successively lost their supremacy, the Amphictyonic Council (whose duties consisted in guarding the rights and dignity of the Temple of Delphi) began to exercise an important influence in the affairs of Greece. They issued a decree, subjecting the Phocians to a heavy fine for cultivating some lands which had been consecrated to Apollo. The Phocians flew to arms, stormed the city of Delphi, and took possession of the Temple itself. Thus a Sacred War was kindled; and it was at this epoch, that Philip of Macedon, who had long sought a pretext for interfering in the affairs of Greece, assumed the character of a Champion of the Delphic god, and marched against the Phocians. He completely defeated them, and thus became master of Thessaly. The cities of Phocis were subsequently dismantled, their country laid desolate, and their vote in the Amphictyonic Council transferred to the king of Macedon. Demosthenes, the orator, endeavoured to stir up the Athenians to resist the power of Philip—but in vain. One feeble effort was, however, made against him by the united Athenians, Thebans, and Corinthians, who met him on the plain of CHÆRONEA, in Bœotia (B.C. 338), but they were irretrievably defeated.

The independence of Greece was destroyed, and Philip of Macedon became its virtual master.

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## HISTORY OF MACEDON.

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PERIOD V.

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THE ancient inhabitants of Macedonia appear to have been a mixed race, partly of Greek, and partly of barbarian origin. The founder of the monarchy was

PERDICCAS, whose fifth successor was

AMYNTAS, under whom Macedonia became tributary to the Persians. His son

ALEXANDER I. ascended the throne (b.c. 500), and though he fought on the side of Persia against the Greeks, it was with great reluctance that he did so; and on the night before the battle of Platœa he gave secret intelligence to Aristides of the intended attack.

He was succeeded by

PERDICCAS II., whose brothers, Philip and Derdas, were encouraged to contest the crown by the Athenians. He was therefore induced to take the Spartan side in the first Peloponnesian war, and much of the success of Brasidas was owing to his co-operation.

His son

ARCHELAUS succeeded in 413 B.C., and transferred his residence from Ægæ to Pella, where he entertained the learned men of the day, among whom we may mention Socrates, Agathon, and Euripides. He greatly improved the condition of his kingdom; but

was murdered by Craterus, one of his favourites, and the crown devolved upon

AMYNTAS II. He left three sons—

ALEXANDER II., who was assassinated by Ptolemy Alorites;

PERDICCAS III., who slew Ptolemy, and recovered his brother's throne, but fell in battle against the Illyrians; and

PHILIP, the founder of the Macedonian greatness, and the celebrated father of a yet more celebrated son.

Educated in the arts of war by the great Epaminondas, Philip displayed great valour and ability. He instituted the far-famed Macedonian phalanx, by means of which he conquered Pœonia, Illyria, and a considerable part of Thrace. His power was already great, when the Sacred War furnished him with an opportunity of interfering in the affairs of Greece—the Thebans having asked his assistance. He subdued the Phocians, and then made an attempt to seize Thermopylæ (b.c. 352), but was baffled by the energetic promptitude of the Athenians, who were roused to action by the harangues of Demosthenes, whose life was spent in opposing Philip's designs against Grecian liberty. After this the Macedonian troops were driven from the island of Eubœa by Phocion, the last of the generals and statesmen who adorned the Athenian Republic. Nothing daunted, Philip marched against Olynthus, which was betrayed into his hands, and levelled to the ground. This triumph was followed by the conquest of the whole Chalcidian peninsula, with its valuable commercial marts, and seaports. His artifices and bribes lulled the Athenians into a

fatal security, and he finally put an end to the Sacred War by the destruction of the Phocians, whose votes in the Amphictyonic Council were transferred to him, and his successors, with their office of presiding at the Pythian games. Thus the national oracle, after being hired in turn by every party in Greece, fell at last into the hands of a foreign prince, who made it subserve his own purposes. For several years Philip was engaged in the conquest of the cities of the Thracian Chersonesus; after which the breaking out of the Third Sacred War gave him an opportunity of aiming another blow at the Grecian states. He destroyed Amphissa, and then seized and fortified Elatea. The alarmed Athenians united with the Thebans, and met Philip on the plains of Cheronea. His son—the youthful Alexander—was in command of one of the Macedonian wings, and it was a charge made by him, on the Theban Sacred Band, which decided the fortune of the day. This battle crushed the liberties of Greece, and made it in reality a province of the Macedonian monarchy. In the following year Philip convened a congress of the Grecian states at Corinth, when war was declared against Persia, and Philip appointed generalissimo of the confederate forces (B.C. 338).

Before starting, he celebrated his nuptials with Cleopatra, the beautiful niece of Attalus, one of his generals, to the indignant rage of Olympias, the mother of Alexander.

Afterwards he gave his daughter in marriage to Alexander of Epirus, but whilst walking in procession through the city (ÆGÆ) Philip was stabbed to the

heart by Pausanias, a young Macedonian nobleman, probably at the instigation of Olympias (B.C. 336).

ALEXANDER THE GREAT ascended the throne, aged twenty. He had been for three years the pupil of Aristotle, and at the early age of sixteen had been Regent of Macedonia during his father's absence. The news of Philip's assassination had excited in several states a hope of shaking off the Macedonian yoke, and a revolt was in agitation, but the activity of Alexander disconcerted all their movements. The Thracians, Illyrians, and other barbarous tribes of the North also took up arms, but Alexander quickly reduced their fastnesses, and chastised them severely. The Thebans hearing a report that he had fallen in Illyria, rose, and besieged the Macedonian garrison in the Cadmea. With incredible rapidity Alexander appeared before the city, and, after a brief struggle, levelled it with the ground. This calamity spread terror throughout Greece, and the states hastened to renew their submission.

Bent on the conquest of Asia, he entrusted the government of Greece and Macedon to Antipater, and prepared to invade Persia. He led his forces to Sestos, in Thrace, whence they crossed the Hellespont, and confronted the Persian forces on the river Granicus. He obtained a decisive victory, which was followed by the subjugation of all the provinces west of the river Halys, which had formed the ancient kingdom of Lydia, and before the first campaign closed, Alexander was the undisputed master of Asia Minor. He then removed his head-quarters to Gordium, and opened his second campaign with



the reduction of Phrygia. At Issus he encountered the Persian monarch himself, who fled in the very beginning of the engagement, and the vast treasures of his camp became the prey of the Macedonians.

Alexander next procured the submission of the sea coast of Phœnicia, and encountered no resistance till he came to New Tyre, which, after a long siege, was taken by storm. This success was followed by the submission of all Palestine, except Gaza, which made an obstinate defence, and was severely punished. From Gaza Alexander entered Egypt, which submitted to him almost without a blow. He opened his fourth campaign by crossing the Euphrates and Tigris, and entering the plains of Assyria.

He found Darius, with an immense army, encamped at Arbela, where he gave him battle, and destroyed forty thousand of the Persian troops. Darius himself took flight, and was pursued by the conqueror. On his march, the satraps, both of Babylonia and Susiana, met him and tendered their submission; and advancing to Persepolis, he sullied his triumph by the wanton destruction of the city, which was burnt to the ground. Meanwhile Darius had been deposed and murdered by Bessus, the satrap of Bactria, who in turn was pursued and put to death by Alexander. Four years were spent in subduing the northern provinces of Parthia, Bactria, Sogdiana, and the Scythian hordes beyond. But his thirst for conquest was still unsatisfied. He aspired to the sovereignty of India. No opposition was made to the passage of the Indus, and on its eastern bank Alexander received the submission of Taxeles, a powerful Indian chief.

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Continuing his march through the Punjaub, he reached the banks of the Hydaspes, the opposite side of which was occupied by Porus, the Indian king. A battle ensued, in which the Indians were totally defeated, and Porus himself made prisoner.

Continuing his march he reached the Hyphasis (Sutlej), but owing to the incessant rains, the army were so fatigued that they refused to go further, and Alexander was reluctantly obliged to make the Punjaub the limit of his conquests.

He returned to Babylon, and was occupied for many days in receiving embassies, as "the acknowledged master of the world:" see Dan. ii. 39. He began to beautify and adorn the city, formed plans for securing the vast empire he had acquired, and for joining Europe to Asia by the bonds of commercial intercourse. His next design was the subjugation of Arabia, but he fell a victim to a fever, the consequence of excessive drinking, and died at the early age of thirty-two, (B.C. 323)—the most celebrated of earthly monarchs.

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## HISTORY OF ROME.

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PERIOD V.

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THE governmental power of the new Roman Republic was at first placed in the hands of two magistrates, called CONSULS.

They were elected annually, and BRUTUS and COLLATINUS were the first chosen (B.C. 508). During their administration a conspiracy was formed for the restoration of Tarquin, in which the sons of Brutus were implicated. It was discovered, and the criminals beheaded by order of their father.

Tarquin then sought foreign assistance, and marched at the head of an Etruscan army against Rome. Brutus and Aruns (the king's son) perished by each other's swords, and the Romans remained conquerors.

VALERIUS and LUCRETIVS were the next consuls. Tarquin made another attempt to regain his throne, aided by Porsenna, king of Clusium, who was, however, repulsed by the desperate valour of

HORATIUS COCLES and MUCIUS SCÆVOLA, and retreated. Tarquin's fourth effort was equally unsuccessful. The Latins, who had now espoused his cause, encountered the Romans at Lake Regillus, and were defeated with great slaughter. Meanwhile the necessity had arisen of appointing a temporary

magistrate, who should possess absolute power for a short period in times of emergency. He was called Dictator, and LARTIUS was the first to fill this office.

AULUS POSTHUMIUS, the second dictator, however, was the one who headed the Romans at the battle of Regillus.

Rome next became distracted by disputes between the patricians and plebeians, which rose to such a height that a civil war seemed inevitable. Matters were, however, accommodated by the institution of

TRIBUNES OF THE PEOPLE, who were representatives and protectors of the plebeians, empowered to oppose any law which might be injurious to their interests, and to abolish any decree of the senate.

Order being thus restored, the Roman army marched against the VOLSCI, with whom war had broken out.

CAIUS MARTIUS, a distinguished patrician, carried by assault their chief city, Corioli, and received, with the highest honours, the title of CORIOLANUS.

Meanwhile famine had broken out in Rome, all tillage having been neglected during the recent disturbances. Hunger revived the spirit of discontent, and the patricians were accused of causing the public distress. Coriolanus incurred the especial enmity of the tribunes, and was condemned to perpetual banishment. Indignant at this treatment, he joined the Volsci, and invaded the Roman territories. City after city fell into his hands. At length he resolved to besiege Rome itself. A deputation of ten senators, and another of priests, pleaded with him in vain; but the tears of a mother prevailed—he led the

Volscians back, and was put to death for sparing Rome (B.C. 488). The intrigues of

SPURIUS CASSIUS, who was three times consul, next occupied attention. He was the proposer of the first AGRARIAN LAW, *i.e.*, he suggested that the public lands, which had been the domain of the kings, and were now appropriated by the patricians, should be equally divided between the present owners and the plebeians. This was the origin of the famous agrarian controversy, which for so long a time kept the state in agitation. The senators gave a seeming assent to the proposal, but contrived to bring Cassius to trial, on the accusation that he was aiming at despotic power. The tribunes, envying his popularity, deserted his cause, and he was condemned to be thrown headlong from the Tarpeian rock (B.C. 484).

During the next seven years one of the seats in the consulship was held by some member of the FABIAN family. They were at first the great opponents of the agrarian law, but afterwards turned round and advocated it strenuously. Their proposals being rejected, they resolved to leave Rome and establish a colony on the frontiers. The Fabian family numbered three hundred and six men, and with their clients and dependents they fortified a camp, and for two years successfully defended the Roman frontier against the invading Veientes, but at length were all cut off by a sudden ambush of their enemies.

The ÆQUI next renewed hostilities, and intercepted the consular army, in the defiles of Mount Ægidus. The Senate, in alarm, created a Dictator, and their choice fell on CINCINNATUS, a former Consul, who had

retired to his farm, and was found at the plough. In twenty-four hours he completely defeated the ÆQUI, and then resigned the dictatorship, and returned to the cultivation of his land.

Rome had now grown to such magnitude, that the want of a regular written body of laws was much felt. Ambassadors were therefore sent to the Grecian states, to collect the best codes of celebrated legislators, and on their return, ten magistrates, called DECEMVIRS, were chosen, with consular power, to arrange and digest these materials.

The result was the celebrated constitution known as the laws of the TWELVE TABLES, which continued down to the time of the Emperors to be the basis of all civil and penal jurisprudence (B.C. 450).

The first Decemvirs earned the respect and esteem of their fellow citizens; the second Council of Ten deserved the hatred which cleaves to their name. They refused to lay down their office at the end of a year; and behaved in the most tyrannical manner. Their repeated acts of atrocity at length caused their ruin. The people rose against their oppressors. Appius, the most hated of the Decemvirs, was thrown into prison, where he perished by his own hand; and the rest were banished. The old consular form of Government was now restored; but the disturbances between the patricians and plebeians still continuing, another change was made. MILITARY TRIBUNES were appointed in place of the consuls. They were six in number, and three were chosen from the people (B.C. 448).

The next year a new office was created, viz., that of

Censors, whose business was to regulate the taking of the Census, and superintend public morals.

While these commotions disturbed the city, the Romans were engaged in desultory wars with the Sabines, the Æquians, and the Volscians, which led to no decisive result. A more important war now broke out; the Romans having resolved on the destruction of VEII, her great rival. Such was the strength of this city, however, that the Roman army lay before it for ten years; but at last it was taken by Camillus, who secretly constructed a mine opening into the citadel, and thus gained admission for his troops. Camillus was equally successful in a war against the Falisci, but on the charge of having embezzled part of the plunder of Veii, he was condemned to exile. The taking of Veii overawed all Etruria, but the triumph of the conquerors was short. Rome was about to be destroyed by a new enemy. The barbarous Gauls, under the Brennus, their chieftain, crossed the Alps, and advanced to the gates of Rome. The Senators were slain, and the city, with the exception of the Capitol, burnt to the ground. The Romans, in despair, entreated the forgiveness of Camillus, and appointed him Dictator. With 40,000 men he attacked the Brennus, and by degrees drove the Gauls out of the Roman territory (B.C. 390). His fame, as the deliverer of Rome, and the conqueror of the Gauls, is spoken of by Aristotle. He now set about the restoration of the city, which was a heap of ruins; but Rome, rebuilt in haste, and without a plan, retained, even in the days of her proudest magnificence, tokens of her early humiliation.

The struggle between the Patricians and Plebeians continued for some time, but was at length terminated by the energy of two men who changed the aspect of their country and of the world. These were

LICINIUS and SEXTIUS, who became the renovators of the Roman constitution. Being Tribunes together in B.C. 376, they promulgated the three bills which have ever since borne the name of the LICINIAN ROGATIONS. The first opened the consulship to the Plebeians; the second prohibited any person from renting more than three hundred and twenty acres of the public land, &c.; the third proposed that in all cases of outstanding debts, the interest which had been paid should be deducted from the capital, and the balance paid by equal instalments in the course of three years. The Patricians protracted their resistance to these laws during five years; but at length in 366 B.C. they became law, and Camillus celebrated the termination of party quarrels by erecting a temple to Concord.

The Plebeians having once made good their claim to the consulship acquired successively participation in the other high offices of state.

The Dictatorship was opened to them B.C. 353; the Censorship in 348; the Prætorship in 334; the Priestly Office in 300. During these civic struggles, the Romans maintained their reputation abroad by several victories over their enemies, especially the Gauls, and the Etruscans. But they were soon engaged in a more important struggle with the SAMNITES; and this contest, which lasted with little intermission for more than half a century, opened a



way for the subjugation of Southern Italy, and laid the foundation of Rome's future greatness.

CORNELIUS COSSUS, AND VALERIUS CORVUS were Consuls during the first year of the war, and gained an important victory at the foot of Mount Gaurus, near Naples. A truce was at length entered into, but the Latins, who had acted as the allies of Rome, were dissatisfied with their treatment, and demanded that they should be put on a footing of equality with Rome ; half the senate, and one of the Consuls being chosen from their body. This was indignantly refused, and a Latin War followed, the conduct of which was entrusted to MANLIUS TORQUATUS and DECIUS.

The Latins fled in irretrievable confusion, and the Romans followed up their success with so much spirit during the ensuing campaigns, that all Latium, and Campania were subdued, and annexed as provinces to the territory of the Republic.

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## HISTORY OF CARTHAGE.

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### PERIOD V.

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THE famous city of Carthage stood on the north coast of Africa, about one hundred miles westward from the southernmost point of Sicily. It was a colony from Tyre, the great centre of Phœnician commerce in the east, and was said to have been founded by Dido about the year 880 B.C. (see History of Phœnicia, Period IV).

The language of the colony continued to be Phœnician or Punic, and Carthage soon assumed a leading position in the west of the Mediterranean. As her wealth and power increased she planted numerous colonies on the African coast.

Three hundred Libyan cities are said to have paid her tribute, and her dominion was gradually extended to the Pillars of Hercules on the one side, and the Great Syrtis on the other. The people of this wide district were ruled by Carthage with excessive rigour, and were not allowed to enjoy any political rights.

The government of Carthage was originally monarchical, but at an early period it assumed a republican form. Two elective magistrates called *SUFFETES*, or Judges (as at Tyre), and a senate of three hundred, were entrusted with the management of public affairs; but all the real power was vested in a smaller council

of one hundred, who held office for life, and before this narrow oligarchy all other powers grew dim. The religion of the Carthaginians was the same as that of the mother country Phœnicia, and was consequently marked by sanguinary rites and human sacrifices. Melcart—the Tyrian Hercules, Moloch (Saturn) and Astarte (Venus) were the principal divinities. It does not appear that there was a distinct sacerdotal caste; the priestly functions were united with the magisterial. The Carthaginians like the Phœnicians paid great attention to naval affairs. They were eminent for their skill in ship-building, and it was after the model of a Carthaginian galley, that the Romans built their first fleet. The land armies were chiefly composed of mercenaries and slaves, the citizens themselves engrossed by commercial pursuits, being unwilling to encounter the hardships and perils of war.

While the Persian empire was rising into importance in the east, Carthage was acquiring supremacy over the western world by means of the family of Mago, who, for more than a century held the chief power of the state.

In the year 509 a treaty was concluded between the republics of Rome and Carthage, from the terms of which it appears that the Carthaginians were already supreme masters not only of the northern coast of Africa, but of Sardinia, the Balearic cities, and a considerable portion of Sicily and Spain. When Xerxes was preparing to invade Greece, Carthage entered into alliance with him, through dread of Grecian valour and enterprise, and agreed to attack the colonies. The command was entrusted to Hamil-

car, the head of the illustrious family of Mago. He landed at Panormus and laid siege to Himera. The Syracusans headed by Gelon, their tyrant, advanced to the help of Himera, slew Hamilcar, and completely defeated the Carthaginian army, on the very same day that the battles of Thermopylæ and Artemisium were fought (B.C. 480).

For seventy years after this defeat, little is known of the history of Carthage; but she was destined yet to triumph for awhile in Sicily. Under the command of Hannibal, the grandson of Hamilcar, Himera and Selinus were both taken. They proceeded to besiege Agrigentum, the second city of the island, which surrendered, and Geta next shared its fate. Dionysius, king of Syracuse, sent deputies to all the Greek states in Sicily, exhorting them to expel the intruders.

His machinations were successful; the Carthaginian merchants, who had settled in the island, were massacred, while Dionysius captured several of the most important Carthaginian fortresses. The result was the siege of Syracuse itself by Himilco, who had succeeded his father, Hannibal, in the command.

Everything seemed to promise success, when a plague of such virulence broke out in his camp, that the living were unable to bury the dead. Dionysius, taking advantage of this, sallied forth, and slaughtered the Carthaginians, who were forced to surrender. On a future occasion, however, he was defeated, and an honourable peace was concluded, which terminated the Sicilian War.

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HISTORY OF JUDEA.  

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PERIOD V.  

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SEVENTY years had been appointed by God, as the term of Judah's captivity in Babylon; and in the year B.C. 536 this period expired, just when the united power of the Medo-Persian kingdom, and the dominion of Babylon passed into the hands of Cyrus. In the first year of his reign he published the celebrated edict, giving permission to the Jews to return to Jerusalem, and rebuild the temple.

Only a remnant of the nation (less than fifty thousand) took advantage of this edict; they were "those whose spirit God had raised." Ezra i. 5. They were headed by ZERUBBABEL, grandson of King Jehoiachin.

Salathiel, his father, was made governor of the city.

It was at this juncture that the Hebrews were first called Jews. After preparations had been made, they laid the foundation of the temple; and then it was that the scene took place described in Ezra iii. The work was delayed for eighteen years by the Samaritans, until the prophets Zechariah and Haggai encouraged the people to build, and the temple was completed.

The Persian governors, to the west of the Euphrates, were the actual rulers of the Jews, but they were un-

molested in the worship of God. Their internal condition was one of great weakness, and much required correction; as we see from the prophetic books of Haggai, Zechariah, and Malachi. The latter probably lived soon after the former. For more than fifty years after the completion of the temple we have no particulars of Jewish history, unless the book of Esther relates to this interval. But in the seventh year of Artaxerxes I. (B.C. 466) Ezra, the scribe, went from Babylon to Jerusalem to instruct the people as a teacher of the law. Much was done for his encouragement by the Persian monarch;—a large body of the people accompanied him back; and he laboured successfully, for many years, for the instruction of his nation. Thirteen years afterwards Nehemiah obtained from the same Persian monarch that decree “to restore and to build Jerusalem as a city” to which reference is made in the prophecy of Daniel. Nehemiah himself was constituted governor, and exerted himself diligently to restore the walls of the city, and to enforce the observance of the law. He had to oppose careless priests, and treacherous people. The Old Testament history of Jerusalem ends with the exclusion of Tobiah, the Ammonite, from the house of God, by Nehemiah, and his expulsion also of the son of Joiada, the son of Eliashib, the high priest, who had, in defiance of the law, married the daughter of Sanballat, a Moabite chief. The pontificate of this Joiada was remarkable for the building of the Samaritan temple on Mount Gerizim (B.C. 408) by his apostate son Manasseh, who had been banished by Nehemiah many years before.

After the death of Nehemiah, Judæa was added to the satrapy of Syria, but governed by the high priest. The pontificate, therefore, was greatly coveted, as representing the ancient regal office. JOIADA was succeeded by his son

JOHANAN—but was opposed by his brother Jeshua, who, being a favorite of Bagoses the Persian general, satrap of Syria, procured a grant of the pontificate from Artaxerxes II. (Mnemon). A struggle ensued, and Jeshua was slain by his brother, in the inner court of the temple. Under the Persian king Ochus a rebellion took place in Phœnicia, and some of the Jewish cities having joined in it, they were ravaged by that monarch.

But Jerusalem and all the East were about to change masters. The Macedonian conqueror, after the fall of Tyre, marched upon Jerusalem (b.c. 382). Jaddua, the high priest, went forth to meet him in his sacerdotal robes, accompanied by a procession of priests. Alexander, on meeting him, prostrated himself, and then entered Jerusalem peaceably, and offered sacrifices in the temple.

At the request of Jaddua, he exempted the Jews from paying tribute every seventh or Sabbatical year.

Many Jews took military service under Alexander in his latter campaigns, and he shewed invariable kindness to their nation.

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PERIOD VI.  

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*Began with the Death of Alexander B.C. 323. Ended  
with the fall of Carthage B.C. 146.*

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HISTORY OF MACEDON.  

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PERIOD VI.  

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THE death of Alexander the Great was the signal for war and disunion throughout the whole of his vast empire. A military council at once assembled to discuss the course to be pursued. After much debate, it was decided that

ARRIDÆUS, his half-brother, a prince of weak mind, should be acknowledged as his nominal successor; Perdicas, a Macedonian nobleman, acting as regent; and that the principal provinces should be divided among Alexander's generals, each of whom was to have the position and authority of a Persian satrap.



The following table will exhibit their position.

GENERALS.	PROVINCES.
ANTIPATER	MACEDONIA
CRATERUS	GREECE
PTOLEMY LAGUS	EGYPT
ANTIGONUS	PHRYGIA PROPER, LYCIA, AND PAMPHYLIA
EUMENES	PAPHLAGONIA, CAPPADOCIA
LYSIMACHUS	THRACE.
LEONATUS	THE HELLESPONTINE PHRYGIA.

Shortly after the death of Alexander, his wife Roxana gave birth to a son, who was named Alexander Ægus, and was acknowledged as the nominal partner of Arridæus. Perdicas had at first courted the alliance of Antipater, and had married his daughter Nicæa; but with the view of raising himself to the Macedonian throne, he resolved to divorce her, and marry Cleopatra, the sister of Alexander. This project naturally excited the jealousy of the other generals; and Antipater, Craterus, Antigonus, and Ptolemy united in a league against him, and declared war, the scene of which was Egypt, where Perdicas was assassinated by one of his own officers. His death was followed by a fresh division of the empire. Craterus had fallen in battle. Leonatus was dead.

MACEDON and GREECE consequently remained under ANTIPATER, who was declared regent.

PTOLEMY retained Egypt.

ANTIGONUS retained his old provinces, and Susiana in addition, while

SELEUCUS NICATOR (who had accompanied Perdicas to Egypt, but taken a leading part in the mutiny of his officers) received the satrapy of Babylon.

EUMENES and LYSIMACHUS retained their position. Previous to this division, Antipater had been engaged in constant wars against the Greeks, who endeavoured to regain their independence (see History of Greece, Period VI). He did not long survive the second partition of the empire. After his death in B.C. 318 great disturbances arose in Macedonia, between his son CASSANDER, and POLYSPERCHON, one of Alexander's generals, whom Antipater had appointed to succeed him as regent of Macedon. The contest continued for a considerable time, but Cassander was in the end victorious, and obtained possession of Athens. He also murdered Olympias, the mother of Alexander, who had attempted to obtain supreme power in Macedonia, and who, to smooth the way, had put to death Arridæus and his wife Eurydice. The path to the throne now seemed open to Cassander, who connected himself with the royal family by marrying Thessalonica, the sister of Alexander the Great. Shortly afterwards he marched into Greece, and began the restoration of Thebes,—a measure highly popular with the Greeks. He also converted the town of Potidæa into the splendid city of Cassandra.

War soon broke out in the East, where the increasing power and ambitious projects of Antigonus led to a general coalition against him. After four years of fighting, a peace was concluded (B.C. 311), by which it was provided that Cassander should retain

his authority in Europe till Alexander Ægus was of age; that Ptolemy should retain Egypt, and Lysimachus Thrace; and that Antigonus should have the government of Asia. Cassander's next step was to murder the young king and his mother Roxana. The struggle between Antigonus and his rivals was renewed, but was brought to a close in B.C. 301, by the battle of Ipsus in Phrygia, in which the former was killed and his army defeated. Seleucus and Lysimachus shared his possessions between them.

Eumenes had been killed by Antigonus in 316; consequently the empire was now divided only into four parts, thus:—

CASSANDER	Greece and Macedon.
SELEUCUS	From the coast of Syria to the Euphrates, with part of Phrygia and Cappadocia.
LYSIMACHUS	The greater part of Asia Minor.
PTOLEMY	Egypt.

Cassander died in B.C. 297, and was succeeded on the throne of Macedon by his eldest son

PHILIP IV., but he died in 295, and the succession was then disputed by his two brothers

ANTIPATER and ALEXANDER. The latter called in the aid of Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, and Demetrius "Poliorcetes," who had established himself at Athens. The latter, seeing an opening for his own ambitious designs, caused Antipater and Alexander to be assassinated, and was saluted King of Macedon by the troops. He reigned for seven years, which were a series of wars.

DEMETRIUS POLIORCETES completely alienated the affections of his subjects by his pride and luxury, while Pyrrhus, by his generosity and courage, became the hero of the Macedonians, who looked upon him as a second Alexander. Invading Macedonia, the troops flocked to his standard, and Demetrius was compelled to fly.

PYRRHUS ascended the throne, but in seven months he was in turn driven out by Lysimachus. His wife, the wicked Arsenoë, jealous of her step-son Agathocles, the heir to these vast dominions, procured his assassination, upon which his widow, Lysandra, fled to Seleucus, and sought from him vengeance and protection. He readily espoused her cause, and the hostilities which ensued between him and Lysimachus were brought to a termination by the battle of Corupedion, fought near Sardis (B.C. 281), in which Lysimachus was defeated and slain. By this victory, Macedonia, and the whole of Alexander's empire, except Egypt, Southern Syria, Cyprus, and part of Phœnicia, fell under the sceptre of

SELEUCUS. The latter then crossed the Hellespont to take possession of Macedonia, but on his way was murdered by

PTOLEMY CERAUNUS (eldest son of Ptolemy Lagus), who was saluted king by the army (B.C. 280); but the Asiatic dominions of Seleucus fell to his son Antiochus Soter. The crime of Ptolemy, however, was speedily overtaken by a just punishment. His kingdom was invaded by an immense host of Celts, and he was killed at the head of the forces which he led against them. Macedonia then fell, for some time, into a state of anarchy and confusion, but in B.C. 278

ANTIGONUS GONATAS, son of Demetrius Poliorcetes, succeeded in establishing himself on the throne. He was opposed by Pyrrhus, who drove him into Greece, and a battle ensued between the two at Argos, where a tile was hurled at the king of Epirus by an Argive woman, and he was then dispatched by the soldiers of Antigonus.

Antigonus did not possess the sovereignty of Southern Greece, the independence of which had been secured by the Achæan League, and the exploits of Aratus of Sicyon.

He died in 243, and was succeeded by his son

DEMETRIUS II. The ten years of his reign were spent in war with the Ætolians, who had formed a confederacy similar to that of the Achæans. He died in 233, leaving an infant son, Philip V., but his cousin

ANTIGONUS DOSON succeeded, nominally as his guardian.

Aratus of Sicyon having sought his aid against Cleomenes, king of Sparta, he gladly availed himself of the opportunity thus afforded to restore the influence of his family in Southern Greece; and entering the Peloponnesus, gained a complete victory over Cleomenes at SELLASIA.

Sparta was thus placed at his mercy, but he restored its ancient constitution, and was much beloved by the Greeks. On his death in 221

PHILIP V. mounted the throne. He lived at a time when the great struggle between Rome and Carthage was attracting the attention of the whole civilized world. In B.C. 200 the Romans declared war against

him. It lasted only three years, and was brought to a termination by the battle of CYNOCEPHALÆ in Thessaly, which decided the fate of the Macedonian monarchy. Without an army and without resources, Philip was obliged to sue for peace (B.C. 197). He purchased it by the sacrifice of his navy, and the resignation of his supremacy over the Grecian states. He died of a broken heart in B.C. 179, and was succeeded by his son

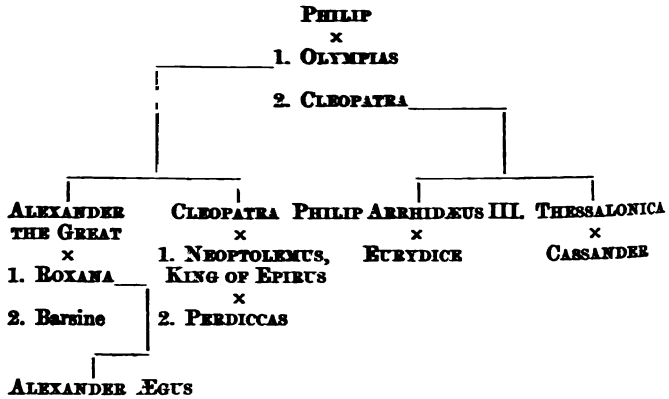
PERSEUS, the last monarch of Macedonia. He soon found that war was inevitable.

A Roman army crossed the Adriatic, and passed through Epirus and Acharnania into Thessaly. Within thirty days they subdued the whole of Illyria; and in B.C. 169 the consul LUCIUS ÆMILIUS PAULUS appeared in Macedon. His name struck terror into the partisans of Perseus, while it inspired with courage the Roman allies.

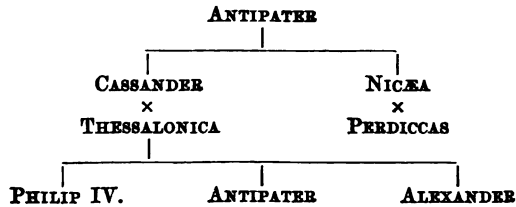
A decisive engagement took place at Pydna, in which Perseus was irretrievably ruined; twenty thousand Macedonians are said to have perished. He fled first to Pella, then to Amphipolis, and finally to the sanctuary of the sacred island of Samothrace; but was at length obliged to surrender himself to a Roman squadron.

He was led in chains to Rome, to adorn the triumph of Paulus (B.C. 167), but was afterwards permitted by his haughty conqueror to spend the remainder of his life in a sort of honorable captivity at Alba. Such was the end of the Macedonian empire, which was now divided into four Roman districts, each under the jurisdiction of an oligarchical council.

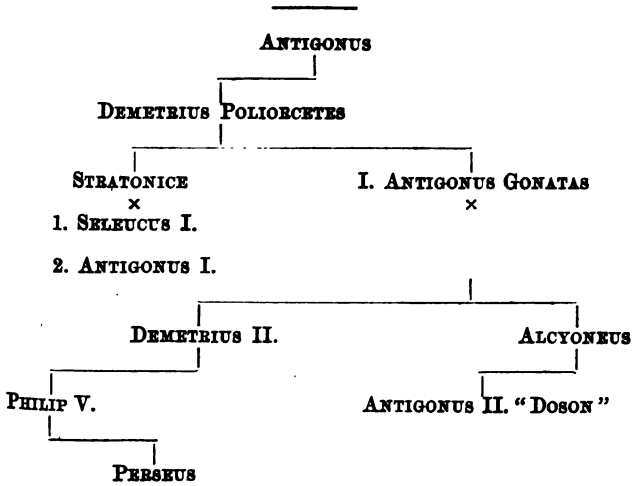
HOUSE OF ALEXANDER THE GREAT.



HOUSE OF ANTIPATER.



## HOUSE OF ANTIGONUS.





## HISTORY OF EGYPT.

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PERIOD VI.

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EGYPT, under the Ptolemies, became not only a powerful kingdom, but the principal emporium of commerce, and the seat of literature and science.

PTOLEMY I., the son of Lagus, was the wisest statesman among the successors of Alexander. As soon as the battle of Ipsus put him in possession of Egypt, he began to provide for the happiness of his new subjects. He revived their ancient religious and political constitution, renewed the division of the country into nomes, and restored the priestly caste to a portion of its ancient privileges. The external security of the country was strengthened by the conquest of Lybia, Cyrene, part of Arabia, Palestine, Phœnicia, Cœle-Syria, and Cyprus. But the latter part of his reign was passed in tranquillity, and Ptolemy gave all his attention to the cultivation of the arts and sciences, inviting to his court and entertaining with royal munificence all the great men of the age, among whom we may name Euclid, the mathematician; Diodorus, the rhetorician; Philetus, the elegiac poet; Zenodotus, the grammarian; and Antiphilus, the painter.

Under his fostering care Alexandria quickly rose to

the place designed for it by its founder, and became the most wealthy and splendid city of the known world. He founded the MUSEUM, a college of philosophy, where men of learning were maintained at the public cost; and he commenced the celebrated LIBRARY, which became the largest in the world. Ptolemy received the title of SOTER from the Rhodians, whom he delivered from the attacks of Demetrius Poliorcetes. He died B.C. 284, and was succeeded by

PTOLEMY II., surnamed PHILADELPHUS, under whose peaceful administration the Egyptian monarchy was raised to still greater power and wealth than it had enjoyed under his father. Commerce made rapid strides; ports for the Indian and Arabian trade were constructed on the Red Sea, at Arsinoë (Suez) and Berenice; and the luxury of the court increased in proportion to the wealth of the country.

Philadelphus even exceeded his father in the encouragement given to learning and the arts. Aristarchus, the astronomer; Manetho, the historian; and Zoilus, the grammarian, were among the Alexandrian professors of the time. It was during his reign that the Septuagint version of the Scriptures was made. He wrote, himself, to Eleazar, the High Priest, at Jerusalem, asking him to employ learned men for the work; and seventy elders were appointed, who repaired to Alexandria, and completed this important work. He died B.C. 246, and was succeeded by his son

PTOLEMY III., surnamed EUERGETES, or The Benefactor. He was a warlike prince, and met with signal success. He invaded Syria, and reduced all Mesopotamia, Babylonia, and Susiana, and then

received the submission of all the upper provinces of Asia, as far as the confines of Bactria and India. At the same time his fleets reduced the maritime provinces of Asia, including Cilicia, Pamphylia, and Ionia, as far as the Hellespont, together with Lysimachia, and other important towns, on the coast of Thrace, which continued for a long period subject to the Egyptian rule. His Asiatic acquisitions were not destined to be permanent, but a great part of Abyssinia and the Arabian peninsula, was added to the Egyptian dominions, and new roads for trade opened through these remote countries.

With Euergetes the glory of the Ptolemies ended; for his son and successor,

PTOLEMY IV., "PHILOPATER," was a weak prince, who abandoned to his minister, Sosisibius, the care of all political affairs, and the latter seems to have been as incapable as his master. Antiochus the Great, king of Syria, took advantage of Philopater's incapacity to wage war against him. He conquered the greater part of Coele-Syria, and Palestine, but was afterwards defeated at Raphia, and concluded a peace. Ptolemy gave himself up to every species of debauchery, and fell a victim to his vices in B.C. 204, leaving a son only five years old,

PTOLEMY V., surnamed EPIPHANES, or Illustrious. His guardians proving unworthy of their trust, the regency was transferred to the Roman senate, a circumstance which saved Egypt from the designs of Antiochus, and Philip of Macedon, who had formed a plan for seizing the foreign Egyptian possessions and dividing them between themselves.

The administration of Egyptian affairs was placed

in the hands of Aristomenes, a man of upright character; and as long as Ptolemy continued under his guidance and influence the government was equitable and popular; but at length he was induced to rid himself of this virtuous minister, and Aristomenes was compelled to take poison.

Ptolemy then pursued his course of vice unchecked, and became a cruel tyrant. The monarchy rapidly declined, till Cyprus and Cyrene were all that remained of its foreign provinces. Ptolemy was at length poisoned (B.C. 180), and was succeeded by his infant son

PTOLEMY "PHILOMETER." During his minority his mother, Cleopatra, acted as regent, and maintained the kingdom in a state of tranquillity. But after her death corrupt and incapable ministers rashly engaged in war with Antiochus Epiphanes, who defeated them, and advanced to Memphis, the young king becoming his prisoner. Upon this the brother of Philometer

PTOLEMY PHYSCON (or The Bloated) declared himself king, took the title of Euergetes II., and prepared to defend Alexandria. Antiochus afterwards withdrew into Syria, leaving Philometer king at Memphis; and it was agreed that the brothers should reign together. Dissensions, however, soon broke out, and Physcon expelled Philometer from Alexandria. The latter repaired to Rome, where he was received with honour by the senate, and deputies were appointed to reinstate him in the sovereign power. This they effected, but arranged that Physcon should obtain Cyrene as a separate kingdom. Philometer died in battle (B.C. 145), and Physcon remained king of all Egypt.

## HISTORY OF SYRIA.

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PERIOD VI.

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WE saw that during the fourth period, Syria was conquered by Tiglath Pileser, king of Assyria; and that on the fall of Nineveh, it fell under the Babylonian yoke. It then formed a part, successively of the Persian and Macedonian empires; and after the battle of Ipsus (B.C. 301) fell to the share of

SELEUCUS NICATOR, the founder of the great kingdom of the SELEUCIDÆ. In this partition, however, Cœle-Syria and Palestine went, not to Syria, but to Egypt, and the possession of these provinces became the great source of contention between the Ptolemies and the Seleucids. The empire of Seleucus Nicator was by far the most extensive and powerful of those formed out of the dominions of Alexander. It comprised the whole of Asia, from the remote provinces of Bactria and Sogdiana, to the coasts of Phœnicia, and from the mountain range of Paropamisus, to the central plains of Phrygia, where the dominions of Lysimachus commenced. In B.C. 293, Seleucus consigned the government of all the provinces beyond the Euphrates to his son Antiochus, upon whom he bestowed the title of king. In B.C. 288, the ambitious designs of Demetrius Poliorcetes roused the jealousy

of his old adversaries, and led Seleucus to unite with Ptolemy and Lysimachus against him. Demetrius fell into the hands of the Syrian king, but jealousies then arose between Lysimachus, and Seleucus, and the two monarchs met in battle at Corupedion (B.C. 281). Lysimachus fell; and Seleucus crossed the Hellespont to take possession of the throne of Macedonia: but had proceeded no further than Lysimachia, when he was assassinated by Ptolemy Ceraunus (B.C. 280).

Seleucus appears to have carried out with great energy the projects originally formed by Alexander the Great for the Hellenisation of his Asiatic empire; we find him founding everywhere Greek or Macedonian colonies, which became centres of civilization and refinement. He founded Antioch, in Syria, which became the chief city of Asia, and capital of his kingdom, which was divided into seventy-two satrapies. He also built Seleucia, on the Orontes, and Seleucia, on the Tigris, and numerous other cities. He was succeeded by his son,

ANTIOCHUS I., surnamed SOTER. He ceded his claim to Macedonia, and maintained with difficulty the integrity of his dominions. The kings of Bithynia and Pergamus defeated him in battle, and Ptolemy Philadelphus was equally successful against him. In 262 B.C. he marched against the Gauls, who had advanced towards Ephesus, and fell in battle. His successor

ANTIOCHUS II., "Theos," avenged his father's death, and then turned his arms against Ptolemy Philadelphus, who was at that time an old man, and unable to head his troops.

He therefore brought the contest to a close by means of a disgraceful bribe. Antiochus was to divorce his wife Laodice, and marry Berenice, the daughter of Ptolemy. He did so, but on Ptolemy's death, he recalled Laodice, who, in revenge for the insult she had received, caused Antiochus and Berenice, with their infant son, to be murdered (B.C. 247).

SELEUCUS II., "Callinicus" (Illustrious Conqueror), succeeded his father, and was quickly involved in a war with Ptolemy Euergetes, who was eager to avenge his sister's death. The king of Egypt found little difficulty in making himself master of all Syria and Cilicia. Laodice was taken prisoner, and put to death, and Euergetes crossed the Euphrates, and subdued all the country as far as Babylon, and the Tigris. Tidings of a sedition in Egypt compelled Ptolemy to return, and Seleucus then recovered possession of the greater part of his lost provinces. The inhabitants of Smyrna and Magnesia entered into a treaty to support him, which was graven on a large marble column, which now stands in the area before the theatre at Oxford. It was brought from Asia by the Earl of Arundel in the reign of Charles II. Seleucus afterwards undertook an expedition to the East, with a view of reducing the revolted provinces of Parthia and Bactria, but he was defeated by Arsaces, king of Parthia, in a battle, which was long after celebrated by the Parthians, as the foundation of their independence.

Attalus, king of Pergamus, also extended his dominions over the greater part of Asia Minor, and Seleucus

was engaged in an expedition for the recovery of these provinces, when he was killed by a fall from his horse (B.C. 226). His son

SELEUCUS CERAUNUS ("The Thunderbolt") succeeded. He was feeble both in mind and body, and was assassinated by two of his officers, after a reign of three years. He was followed by his brother

ANTIOCHUS III., surnamed The Great. His reign forms a remarkable epoch in Syrian history, because he came into contact with the power of Rome, and from his death, Syria continued a tributary state.

After defeating the satraps of Media and Persia, who had attempted to make themselves independent, he began to wage war against Ptolemy Philopater—recovered Damascus and Seleucia, which had long been in Egyptian hands, and then advanced to Pelusium. He was met by Ptolemy at Raphia, and there completely defeated. He was afterwards engaged for seven years in an attempt to regain the Eastern provinces of Asia, which had revolted in the reign of Antiochus II., but finding the subjugation of the Parthian and Bactrian kingdoms hopeless, he concluded a peace with them. On the death of Ptolemy Philopater, while Epiphanes was a mere infant, Philip of Macedon and Antiochus agreed to seize upon the foreign provinces of Egypt, and divide them between themselves. The latter accordingly marched into Cœle-Syria, and Phœnicia, and defeated the Egyptian armies. The Alexandrian ministers applied for protection to Rome, and the senate called upon Antiochus to give up the states which he had seized. Unable to cope with so imperious an enemy,



he entered into a treaty with Egypt by which he betrothed his daughter Cleopatra to the young Ptolemy, and promised, as her dower, the disputed provinces. In B.C. 196 he crossed over into Europe, and took possession of the Thracian Chersonese. This brought him into contact with the Romans, who desired him to restore the Chersonese to the Macedonian king. He refused, and war followed. In B.C. 191 he was defeated by the Romans at Thermopylae, and compelled to return to Asia. Then, at Magnesia, near Mount Sipylus, he had again to encounter a Roman army, under L. Scipio, and sustained a defeat which laid him prostrate at the feet of his enemies.

The Romans deprived him of all his dominions in Asia Minor, the greater part of which were annexed to the kingdom of Pergamus. He had also to surrender his elephants, and ships of war, and pay an immense sum of money to the senate within twelve years. In order to raise it he attacked a wealthy temple in Elymais, but was murdered by the people of the place (B.C. 187). He was succeeded by his son

SELEUCUS IV., surnamed "Philopater." His reign was feeble and inglorious; the kingdom was fast falling into decay, and in B.C. 175 he was assassinated by one of his own ministers. His brother

ANTIOCHUS IV., surnamed "Epiphanes," succeeded. He marched into Egypt, defeated the Egyptian army at Pelusium, and took possession of the person of his nephew Ptolemy Philometer. He was even preparing to lay siege to Alexandria itself, when the Romans forced him to retire. The ambition of Antiochus was next displayed against his own subjects. He endeavoured

to root out the Jewish religion, and establish uniformity of worship throughout his dominions; but this attempt led to a rising of the Jewish people under Mattathias, and his heroic sons—the Maccabees, which Antiochus was unable to put down. He died shortly afterwards in a state of raving madness, which the Jews and Greeks equally attributed to his sacrilegious crimes.

ANTIOCHUS V., surnamed EUPATOR, the son and successor of Epiphanes, was nine years old at his father's death; but a rival competitor to the throne arose in Demetrius, the son of Seleucus Philopater, who would have succeeded his father, but that he was at that time a hostage to the Romans. He had now effected his escape by the aid of the historian Polybius; and no sooner appeared in Syria, than he was joined by such numerous partisans that he easily dethroned his rival, and ascended the throne (B.C. 162) under the title of

DEMETRIUS SOTER. The young king Antiochus was put to death; but Demetrius alienated his own subjects by his luxury and intemperance, so that they sided with an impostor, named Alexander Balas, who personated the unfortunate Eupator, and was supported in his fraud by the Maccabees and the Romans. This Balas slew Demetrius in battle, and mounted the throne as

ALEXANDER I. He married Cleopatra, daughter of Ptolemy Philometer, who, however, suddenly turned against his son-in-law (whom he accused of an intention to murder him), and took the part of Demetrius Nicator, son of Demetrius Soter, the rightful heir to

the throne. Being defeated by the Egyptians, Alexander fled to Arabia, where he was murdered by a native chieftain (B.C. 145), and

DEMETRIUS NICATOR ascended the throne. His history will form a part of the Seventh Period.

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## HISTORY OF ROME AND CARTHAGE.

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PERIOD VI.

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At the commencement of this period a Second Samnite war broke out, which lasted twenty-two years. At one juncture it seemed doubtful whether Rome or Samnium was to be mistress of Italy, for the Romans sustained a signal disgrace in a narrow defile, called the Caudine Forks, where they were beaten by Pontius, the great general of the Samnites. But from the year 314 B.C. the Roman fortune began to prevail, and the Samnites were obliged to seek conditions of peace. In 304 B.C. they lost all their territory on the sea-coast, gave up all foreign alliances and conquests, and acknowledged the supremacy of Rome. This peace, however, soon proved hollow. In 298 B.C. the Gauls joined their forces to those of the Samnites, and a Third War ensued, which lasted eight years. In the end the Samnites were compelled to lay down their arms, and submit to the Roman supremacy. The close of the campaign was marked by a disgraceful act. Pontius, the Samnite general, was taken prisoner by the Romans, and led in chains through Rome at the consul's triumph, and afterwards beheaded. Herculaneum, which belonged to the Samnites, was taken in this war.

During this period of foreign warfare, some important works had been undertaken at home.

Appius Claudius, one of the consuls, constructed the celebrated road from Rome to Capua, known as the Via Appia, or Appian Way. It was one hundred and twenty miles in length, and formed of stone blocks fitted closely to each other. The Appian aqueduct, or Aqua Appia, another memorial of this consul, was the first of the great works by which Rome was supplied with water. It was constructed for the benefit of the poor.

Rome still had powerful enemies in the South. Tarentum, a Greek colony, declared itself her foe, and called in Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, the greatest general of the age, to fight her battles. He landed in Italy B.C. 281. His infantry was in part supplied by Ptolemy Ceraunus, now king of Macedon; his cavalry were Thessalian; but it was to his elephants that he was indebted for his first victory, that of Heraclea. It was not gained, however, without great loss, and he attempted to negotiate, but his offers of peace were peremptorily rejected, and the war recommenced.

For an interval of three years we find him in Sicily, helping the Greek states there against the Carthaginians, but he returned to Italy, and was at last defeated at Beneventum, and forced to fly. The Samnites, Bruttians, and Lucanians, who had joined him, were easily subdued after his departure, and Rome established her supremacy over all the countries in Italy, from the northern frontiers of Etruria to the Sicilian Straits, and from the Tuscan Sea to the Adriatic.

It was at this epoch that the two mightiest republics of ancient times first came into collision. The pretence of their quarrel was, who should have the honor, or rather *dishonor*, of protecting the "Mamertine Republic," a set of piratical banditti stained by every species of crime, who at this time were in possession of Messana, but attacked there by the Carthaginians. An army under Appius Claudius crossed the straits, and drove the latter from Messana, thus at once gaining a footing for the Romans in Sicily. From this period dates the "FIRST PUNIC WAR" (B.C. 264). Sixty-seven Sicilian towns threw off the yoke of Carthage, and placed themselves under the protection of Rome, who made herself mistress of Agrigentum, the chief naval and military depôt of the Carthaginians.

The Romans soon perceived that in order to retain their advantages in Sicily they must build a fleet, which was accordingly prepared with incredible haste. Hannibal Gisco, the opposing general, considered the Roman ships so contemptible, that he sailed out to capture them, but the consul Duilius had invented a machine called a "corvus," resembling a drawbridge, by means of which the enemy's ships were seized with hooks, and held fast, while the Roman soldiers poured down upon the decks. The Carthaginians were panic-stricken, and yielded. In a second naval engagement, near the island of Lipara, the same result ensued. Emboldened by success, the Romans invaded Corsica and Sardinia, and made vast preparations for carrying the war into Africa. In the year 254 B.C. they landed, under Regulus, near the fortress of

Clypea, which they took, and used as a stronghold. Seventy-four towns submitted to the Romans, and the Numidians became their allies. On the capture of Tunis the Carthaginians were alarmed, and sued for peace, but the terms demanded by Regulus were so harsh that they resolved to continue the war. They entrusted the command of their army to Xanthippus, a Spartan mercenary, who changed the fortune of the war. He drew the Romans into the plain, and by means of his elephants gained a complete victory; thirty thousand Romans perished, and Regulus was taken prisoner.

The Roman fleet was still more unfortunate, being overtaken in a violent storm, in which two hundred and sixty ships were wrecked, and one hundred thousand perished.

This disaster encouraged the Carthaginians. They transported one hundred and forty elephants to Sicily, and there renewed the war. They recovered Agrigentum, but the Romans having fitted out a new fleet, took Panormus in a battle near that place. The consul Metullus secured or destroyed the dreaded elephants. At length both nations grew weary of the contest, and Hamilcar Barca, the first great soldier that Carthage produced, and father of the celebrated Hannibal, negotiated a peace (B.C. 241).

Thus ended the First Punic War, which was only the prelude to a more fierce and deadly contest. Carthage had indeed withdrawn, discomfited, from Sicily, but it was not yet decided who was to rule the coasts of the Mediterranean. Rome enjoyed a brief period of domestic and external quiet, and the Temple of

Janus was shut for the second time since the foundation of the city; but this tranquillity was of short duration. The Romans carried their arms into Illyricum, near Epirus, and compelled Teuta, queen of that country, to refrain from piracy. She was at length obliged to purchase peace by resigning the greater part of her territories (B.C. 227).

This speedy conquest diffused the fame of the Romans throughout Eastern Europe. The whole of Upper Italy was also subdued after a terrible contest with the Gauls. To keep the conquered country in subjection, a great military road was constructed from Rome to Ariminum. It was called after the consul Claudius Flaminius, the Flaminian Way.

Meanwhile Hamilcar had nearly completed the conquest of Spain, which he had long considered a necessary step towards the subjugation of Italy. He was slain in battle however by a Spanish chief, who had effected a combination of the tribes against him. Hasdrubal, his son-in-law, was elected by the army to succeed him, and he extended the Carthaginian dominions to the Ebro, and founded the city of New Carthage, making it the head quarters of his troops. Hasdrubal was assassinated in his own tent by a slave, and HANNIBAL then took the command. He was at once the ablest of statesmen, and the most skilful of generals: a man as distinguished for the superiority of his moral qualities, his truth, justice, and magnanimity, as for his unrivalled military genius. He gained the hearts of the Spaniards, whilst he forced their submission, and ruled a devoted army, and an obedient people.



In B.C. 218 the SECOND PUNIC war commenced. Hannibal assembled his forces at New Carthage, and crossing the Ebro, determined to go by land into Italy. His perilous march, which occupied five months, reminds us of the extraordinary expeditions of Alexander.

The Romans, meanwhile, had sent Sempronius into Sicily, with orders to invade Africa—Manlius into Cisalpine Gaul—and Scipio into Spain. The latter landed at the mouth of the Rhone, but found that the Carthaginians had already crossed that river. He therefore returned to Italy to intercept his enemies as they descended from the Alps.

Hannibal led his army across these formidable mountains in fifteen days, and advancing through the country of the Taurini took their capital (Turin) by storm. Scipio met the invaders on the banks of the Ticinus; but he was defeated with great loss, and further weakened by the desertion of his Gallic mercenaries, who eagerly flocked to the standard of Hannibal, regarding him as another Brennus.

In the meantime, Scipio had been reinforced by Sempronius, who imprudently forded the river Trebia, and ventured a battle. Hannibal's victory was complete, and was followed by the alliance of all Cisalpine Gaul. Flaminius, the consul of the next year, displayed even more impetuosity and imprudence than Sempronius. Marching incautiously in search of Hannibal, he fell into an ambuscade, near Lake Thrasymene, and was slain with the greater part of his army.

Avoiding Rome, the desolator of Italy pursued

his way along the coast of the Adriatic, and then crossed the country into Campania. Fabius Maximus, who had been appointed Dictator, acted solely on the defensive; but Varro, one of the consuls of B.C. 216, despising such cautious policy, determined to strike a great blow; and a battle ensued at CANNÆ, where the Romans suffered one of the most complete defeats which history records; eighty senators, and forty thousand troops were left dead upon the field. Allured by Hannibal's success, many of the Greek cities, and almost the whole of Lower Italy forsook the cause of Rome, and even Capua opened her gates to the victorious army.

But the Romans were undismayed, and made active preparations for the defence of the republic.

Meanwhile the war in Spain had assumed a threatening aspect, and Mago, the brother of Hannibal, was sent to support his brother Hasdrubal in that country, for when the battle of Cannæ had made Hannibal master of Southern Italy, the two Scipios (father and uncle of the Great Scipio) had subdued all northern Spain.

The possession of Capua proved, contrary to all expectation, a check to the progress of the great Carthaginian. His veterans were enervated by the luxury and indulgence of that licentious city, and the year of inaction which followed, proved fatal to Hannibal's cause.

It was in Sicily that success then began to dawn upon the Roman cause. King Hiero, their faithful ally, was dead; and his successor, a feeble youth of fifteen, made an alliance with Hannibal, who sent

two Sicilian noblemen living in exile at Carthage to assist the young king in the government. The latter was mysteriously assassinated, and a republic proclaimed—but the two brothers assumed supreme authority, and with the help of the celebrated Archimedes defended Syracuse for three years against the power of Rome. At length, however, it was taken by Marcellus; Archimedes was slain, and two years afterwards Agrigentum, the last stronghold of the Carthaginians was betrayed to the consul Lavinius, and the Romans remained masters of the entire island, which henceforth became a regular province. Whilst one Consular army was thus occupied in Sicily, another was blockading Capua. Hannibal marched to its relief, but the Roman commanders were so cautious that he could not bring on a battle, and he therefore determined, if possible, to divert their attention from Capua, by marching to Rome, and threatening the capital itself. But Rome was able to defend herself, and Hannibal retreated through Apulia into Brutii, which became his future head quarters. Meanwhile Capua surrendered, and became the property of the Roman people. But Hannibal, if disappointed in Italy, looked with confidence to Spain, where the two Scipios had been killed, and Roman affairs were at a low ebb. Thus the fortunes of Rome and Carthage were, at this time, almost equally balanced.

The Romans had gained Sicily, Capua, and Sardinia, and were allied with Pergamus and the Grecian states.

Hannibal ruled in Africa, Spain, Lucania, Apulia, and Bruttium, and was allied with Macedon and Bithynia. From this time, however, their equality

disappears. Marcellus, the conqueror of Syracuse, was chosen to be the opponent of Hannibal in Southern Italy, and there he fell by the hands of some Numidians who were lying in ambush.

Meanwhile young Scipio Africanus had offered himself for the war in Spain, and vowed to avenge the death of his father and uncle. He proceeded thither, certain of success, and when the winter was over, surprised New Carthage, before Hasdrubal was aware that he was on the march. The Punic troops made a brave defence, but were forced to surrender, and Hasdrubal left Spain to join his brother in Italy. The consuls Livius and Nero, having discovered the direction of his march, hastened to intercept him. Hasdrubal, misled by his guides, was forced to hazard an engagement at a disadvantage, on the banks of the METAURUS, and was cut to pieces with his whole army (B.C. 206). The first information Hannibal received of this great misfortune was the sight of his brother's gory head, which the consuls caused to be thrown into his camp. He retreated once more into Brutii, but never recovered his brother's death, and never again received succours in Italy. All the Greek states in those parts abandoned him. Philip of Macedon deserted him, and he was unceasingly opposed by a body of the Carthaginian senate, whose base envy brought upon themselves their own final ruin. The Carthaginian generals in Spain were quite unable to make head against the youthful Scipio. It was not long before the whole country, except the town of Gades, was in the hands of the Roman armies. But Scipio regarded Spain as a mere stepping-stone to

Africa. He sailed to Numidia, and formed an alliance with Syphax, king of the Eastern Numidians, and then returned to Rome to propound his views. Towards the close of B.C. 204 he set sail, and landed on the coast of Africa. Syphax deserted him, but Masinissa, king of the Western Numidians, joined him with a body of horse. Scipio suddenly surprised the camp of Syphax and burned it; then attacking his army in the midst of the confusion, he put forty thousand of them to the sword. He then laid siege to Utica, which as well as Tunis opened its gates to the Romans, and the Carthaginian senate driven to despair, recalled Hannibal from Italy to the defence of his own country. He landed at Septis and thence marching northwards, took up his position on the plain of ZAMA. Here a terrible battle ensued, in which the disciplined legions of Scipio prevailed over the raw troops of Hannibal, and victory declared for Rome (B.C. 202).

Hannibal was summoned to Carthage to assist the tottering republic with his counsels, and by his advice peace was concluded. The terms were harsh. The Carthaginians were to give up all their possessions in Spain—the whole of their fleet, except ten ships, and all their elephants. They were to acknowledge Masinissa as king of Numidia, and pay ten thousand talents of silver (£2,000,000).

The triumph of Scipio was the most splendid that had ever ascended to the Capitol. He was offered the reward of a perpetual Dictatorship, but declined all proffered honours, content with the glory of being the conqueror of Hannibal.

Rome was now become a great military republic, supreme in Western Europe, and only waiting her time to break in upon the enervated nations of the East. That time came, when the battle of Zama had delivered her from the fear of Hannibal.

The Athenians, exposed to the attacks of Philip V. of Macedon, sought the protection of the Romans, which was readily granted, as the senate had long been anxious to find a pretext for meddling in the affairs of Greece. An army was sent into Macedonia under the command of Quintus Flaminius, and a decisive battle was fought at CYNOSCEPHALÆ (B.C. 206), in which the Macedonians were irretrievably overthrown. This success was followed by the solemn mockery of proclaiming liberty to Greece. In reality she had only experienced a change of masters.

The Romans next turned their arms against Antiochus the Great, at whose court Hannibal was now a guest. The Syrian king passing over into Greece made himself master of the island of Eubœa, but at Thermopylæ (already so celebrated in Grecian annals) he sustained a severe defeat from the consul Glabrio, and fled panic-stricken to Ephesus. The Roman legions pursued him, and at MAGNESIA forced him to an engagement, and overthrew his army (B.C. 189). He was obliged to purchase peace by resigning all his possessions in Europe, and those in Asia north of Mount Taurus, promising also to give up Hannibal.

That illustrious exile fled for refuge to Prusias, king of Bithynia, but finding that he was still pursued by the vindictive hatred of the Romans, he put an end to his life by taking poison. The Scipios (*i.e.* Africanus

and his brother Lucius) who had defeated Antiochus at Magnesia were, on their return home, accused of having embezzled the public money. Not daring to await the result of his trial the former went into voluntary exile at Liternum, where he died.

After a brief period the Romans declared war with Perseus, king of Macedon. For three years, they made no progress, and the Grecian states favoured Perseus; but the senate ashamed of such petty warfare then appointed Æmilius Paulus to take the command, and the result was glorious. At the battle of PYDNA (B.C. 167) Perseus was completely defeated, and all Macedon submitted to the conqueror.

The destruction of this monarchy was soon followed by that of the miserable remains of the once proud republic of Carthage. To this Third Punic War the Romans were stimulated by the rigid Cato, surnamed The Censor, who was animated by a haughty spirit of revenge for some slights which he imagined he had received from the Carthaginians when sent as ambassador to their state. At first the Carthaginians attempted to disarm their enemies by submission; but when informed that they must abandon their city, and consent to its demolition, they set their insulting foes at defiance. In B.C. 147, Scipio Æmilianus—the adopted grandson of the Great Scipio—took the command of the Roman armies, and in the following year commenced the siege of Carthage. He blocked up every avenue to it both by sea and land, till the inhabitants were reduced to extremity by famine. He next made a feigned attack so as to draw away the defenders from one of the principal gates, which he

then broke down and entered the city. A dreadful scene of slaughter ensued. Æmilianus ordered the city to be set on fire, and multitudes perished in the flames. Further resistance was hopeless, and this magnificent city was levelled with the ground (B.C. 146).

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## HISTORY OF PERGAMUS.

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PERIOD VI.

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THE city of Pergamus cannot fail to excite our interest, as becoming one of the seven churches of Asia. It was situated in one of the most fertile and beautiful valleys in the world.

Its origin is lost in mythical traditions, but it was already in the time of Xenophon a very ancient city. It did not rise, however, to any position of importance till after the battle of Ipsus in B.C. 301, when the north-west part of Asia Minor was united to the Thracian kingdom of Lysimachus. He enlarged and beautified the city of Pergamus, and on account of its strength as a fortress, used it as a treasury. The command of the fortress was entrusted to Philetærus, who afterwards revolted to Seleucus, and on his death established himself as an independent ruler. This, therefore, is the date of the commencement of the kingdom of Pergamus, though the royal title was only assumed by his second successor

ATTALUS I. (B.C. 224). He was a wise and just prince, and distinguished by his patronage of literature. The kingdom reached its greatest extent after the defeat of Antiochus the Great by the Romans (B.C. 190), when they bestowed upon

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EUMENES II. the whole of Mysia, Lydia, Phrygia, Lycaonia, Pisidia, and Pamphylia.

It was under the same king that Pergamus reached the height of its splendour, and that the celebrated library was founded, which for a long time rivalled that of Alexandria, and the formation of which occasioned the invention of parchment—Charta Pergamena. On the death of

ATTALUS III., B.C. 138 (we here anticipate the Seventh Period), the kingdom, by a bequest in his will, passed to the Romans, who took possession of it in the year 130 B.C.

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## HISTORY OF THE JEWS.

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PERIOD VI.

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AFTER the death of Alexander the Great, Judæa was exposed to great calamities. Its position between Syria and Egypt made it an object of envy to both those kingdoms, and it suffered severely from alternate invasions. It first fell into the hands of Ptolemy Soter. He besieged Jerusalem, and stormed it on the Sabbath-day, returning to Egypt with one hundred thousand captives, some of whom he settled in Libya and Cyrene, some in Alexandria. The rule of Jerusalem and the Jewish cities was, at this time, delegated to the High-Priests, who transmitted the revenues of the province to the Egyptian kings.

The first of these was

SIMON the JUST (B.C. 300), the grandson of Jaddua, so highly commended in the book of Ecclesiasticus. He is said by the Jews to have closed the Canon of the Old Testament.

During this period of Egyptian rule the Jews became highly prosperous, the Ptolemies being glad to favor a race who, by their agricultural and mercantile diligence, were so profitable to their rulers. The Septuagint version of the Scriptures dates, as we have seen, from the reign of Ptolemy Philadelphus.

The last twenty years of the rule of the Egyptian kings over Judæa were times of much disturbance, the Holy Land being repeatedly occupied by the contending armies of Syria and Egypt.

Antiochus the Great succeeded in taking all Palestine, but after his defeat at Raphia it again reverted to Ptolemy Philopater, who made a circuit through the recovered portion of his dominions. When he arrived at Jerusalem he resolved, to the great alarm of the Jews, to enter the Temple, notwithstanding the opposition of Simon, the son of Onias, then the high priest. The whole city was filled with lamentation, and the people betook themselves to prayer. Ptolemy passed the wall beyond which no Gentile might go, but was then seized with a fit, and carried out in a senseless state. He quitted the city, full of wrath, and commenced some measures against the Jews, gathering them together in the hippodrome at Alexandria, to be trampled to death by elephants. The infuriated animals turned their rage on the spectators, and left the Jews unharmed. About the year 202 B.C. Judæa again passed into the hands of Antiochus the Great, who freed Jerusalem from its Egyptian garrison.

With the latter part of the reign of Seleucus Philopater (B.C. 176), commence those years of special historic importance, known as the Maccabean period. A report was carried to the Syrian king that great riches were laid up in the Temple. On this, his treasurer, Heliodorus, was sent to seize the treasure. Onias, son of Simon, was now the high priest, and he betook himself to prayer. The spoiler entered the

treasury, and had seized the sacred deposit, when he was struck down by supernatural agency, and, hardly alive, was carried from the Temple. He afterwards poisoned his master, and attempted to gain possession of the Syrian crown, but was overcome by Antiochus Epiphanes. As soon as he was established on the throne, Jason, the wicked brother of Onias, went to him, and offered a large sum if he would give him the high priesthood which his brother held. He succeeded, and Onias was kept a prisoner at Antioch until his death. Under Jason's rule a general apostacy overspread the nation; the service of the temple was neglected; academies on the Greek model were opened in Jerusalem; heathenism was introduced into the holy city, and the high priest himself publicly sent an offering to the Tyrian Hercules.

Jason was in his turn supplanted by his brother **MENELAUS**, who bribed Antiochus to depose him, stripping the Temple of all its ornaments to meet the amount required. The prisoner, Onias, remonstrated against this sacrilege, upon which Menelaus procured his murder. The removal of the holy vessels had filled Jerusalem with commotion, and a formidable riot broke out. Jason, who had fled beyond Jordan, returned and put to death the partisans of Menelaus, tidings of which reached Antiochus in Egypt. He supposed that the whole Jewish nation had rebelled, and marching to Jerusalem took the city by storm. He slew forty thousand of the inhabitants in three days, and sold as many more into slavery. Menelaus being his conductor, he entered the Temple, even to the most holy place, and sacrificed on the brazen altar a

large sow. He then carried away the altar of incense, the golden candlestick, the table of shew-bread, and other holy vessels. Two years afterwards he again desolated Jerusalem, and built a strong citadel overlooking the Temple. The sacrifices were thus brought to an entire cessation. An edict was issued forbidding the observance of the Sabbath, or of the rite of circumcision; all copies of the Law were commanded to be destroyed; and lastly, the Temple itself was dedicated to Jupiter Olympus, the altar of burnt-offering being used as a pedestal for the image (B.C. 168). All who refused to worship the idol were cruelly tortured, until they sank under the hands of the executioner; and death, with every variety of suffering, was inflicted on those who adhered to the law of God. Many fled to the rocks and caverns which abound in Palestine, but even in these desolate places were pursued by the emissaries of the king. In one cave, more than a thousand Jews, who had assembled to celebrate the Sabbath, were massacred by the Syrian soldiers. The efforts of Antiochus were not confined to Jerusalem. The officers of the king went throughout the land to compel the Jews to eat swine's flesh. At Modin, in the western part of Judæa, dwelt MATTATHIAS, an aged priest, who nobly refused to comply with the king's demands; and calling on his sons, and all who were zealous for the Law, to follow him, he broke down his idolatrous altar and idol, and went throughout the land, putting the servants of the king to flight, and causing the Law to be read in the synagogues. In 166 B.C. he died, and JUDAS MACCABÆUS, his son, succeeded him as the

leader of the faithful Jews. He continued his father's work in destroying idolatry throughout the land.

Apollonius, the lieutenant of Antiochus, sought to crush him, and a pitched battle ensued, in which the Syrians were routed, and Apollonius himself slain. Another followed at Beth-horon, in which victory was again on the side of the Jews. Tidings of these events reached Antiochus, who sent a large army into the country, with orders utterly to extirpate the nation of the Jews.

Judas and his men went to Mizpeh, and there, with the holy city full in sight, with fasting and prayer, commended themselves to God. He then went forth with his small band, took possession of the Syrian camp, and vanquished with three thousand a host of forty-seven thousand. After a day of solemn thanksgiving Judas marched against the troops, who were assembling beyond Jordan to oppose him, and gained a victory, which furnished his army with a great store of weapons. The next engagement was at Bethshur, where five thousand Syrians fell, and Lysias, the regent, led back his routed army to Antioch.

Judas then entered Jerusalem, and began to cleanse the sanctuary. The idolatrous altar was pulled down, new vessels made, and the Feast of the Dedication celebrated with all possible solemnity. When Antiochus heard of his triumphs, he returned from the East, but died on the way, in frightful suffering both of mind and body.

One of the last acts of Judas Maccabæus was to send an embassy to Rome to strengthen his political position against the Syrian rulers.

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Soon after this, Bacchides, the Syrian general, invaded the Holy Land, and in the battle which ensued Judas fell (B.C. 161.) Bacchides easily recovered Jerusalem, where the scenes of slaughter were renewed, and then marched against the remnant of the Maccabees, who still held together under the command of Jonathan, the youngest brother of Judas. For some years they were involved in almost continual war; but in B.C. 153, Alexander Balas, the usurper of the Syrian throne, appointed Jonathan to the High-Priesthood, and under his administration Judæa became a flourishing and prosperous state. In B.C. 144 he renewed his league with the Romans, but the following year was treacherously murdered by Tryphon, a Syrian general, who dreaded Jonathan's opposition to his usurpation of the Syrian throne.

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## HISTORY OF GREECE.

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PERIOD VI.

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AFTER the last struggle for independence, when the name of Demosthenes sheds a dying glory over Athens, the people surrendered themselves quietly to the protection of the kings of Macedon. Athens had lost her brightness. An Athenian and a sycophant became convertible terms. In Sparta, a few Dorian families engrossed the land, and exercised tyrannical rule over the people.

In the year B.C. 241, Agis IV., one of the kings, endeavoured to bring about a reform of the state; but the old burgesses, led by the Ephors and the other king, opposed him vehemently, and Agis was put to death. Then followed a re-action.

CLEOMENES III., son of the king who had opposed Agis, succeeded to the throne, and resumed the projects of that unhappy prince. For a time some appearance of vigor was restored to the enfeebled frame of the Spartan constitution.

But during this period our notice is chiefly directed to a people who had hitherto played a very subordinate part in the history of Greece—the Achæans. Their fame was due to a foreigner, Aratus of Sicyon. He joined the league into which the towns of Achaia

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had already entered for mutual defence, and formed the design of uniting all Peloponnesus under the confederation. He set Corinth free from her Macedonian garrison, and this important city joined the league. Her example was followed by Megalopolis and by Argos, and by the year B.C. 227 the Achæan League had become the chief power of the Peloponnesus.

But Sparta still stood aloof, and war ensued between Cleomenes and Aratus. The latter actually called in the aid of Antigonus Doson (grandson of Demetrius Poliorcetes), thus making the league subject to Macedon. Cleomenes was defeated at the battle of Sellasia, and died an exile in Egypt. Sparta fell into the hands of tyrants, and Aratus became lieutenant of the king of Macedon.

There was one celebrated man yet to arise to assist the feeble and expiring efforts of Greece for freedom. This was Philopœmen, styled by Plutarch "The last of the Greeks." He became general of the Achæan League after the death of Aratus, and gained a signal victory over the Spartans, who had joined the Roman alliance. After this, Philopœmen succeeded in adding Sparta to the league, which thus embraced the whole of Peloponnesus. But Sparta having displayed symptoms of insubordination, Philopœmen marched against it in B.C. 188, and took it. He razed the walls and fortifications, abolished the institutions of Lycurgus, and compelled the citizens to adopt the democratic constitution of the Achæans. A few years later he led an expedition against the Messenians, who had revolted from the league, but falling from

his horse, he was captured and conveyed to Messene, where, after a sort of mock trial, he was executed. His death was soon followed by what may be called the death of his country.

For a few years after the conquest of Macedon by the Romans, the Greeks were allowed to call themselves independent; but Rome was only watching for a pretence to attack and to crush them.

When at length the Romans sent an army into Peloponnesus, the consul, Lucius Mummius, gained an easy victory near Corinth, which put an end to the Achæan League for ever.

Corinth was first plundered and then set on fire during the memorable year B.C. 146, and all Greece, as far as Macedonia and Epirus, was formed into a Roman province, and called *ACHAIA*.

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PERIOD VII.  
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*Began with the Fall of Carthage B.C. 146. Ended  
with the Birth of Christ.*

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HISTORY OF ROME.  
—PERIOD VII.  
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AFTER the subjugation of Carthage nothing seemed impossible to Rome. Spain was completely subdued, and made a Roman province; and in the year 133 B.C., Attalus, the rich king of Pergamus, died, and bequeathed his kingdom with all his lands and treasures to the Roman people. "Attalic wealth" henceforth became a term to express an unlooked-for acquisition of property.

But domestic troubles now stayed the career of Roman conquest. We can easily account for them. During the Punic, Macedonian, and Spanish wars, the power of the senate rapidly increased; there were no honest defenders of popular rights, and admission was given to all the vices which tend to divide, enervate, and enslave a great nation.

Tiberius Gracchus was the first to notice the general corruption, and to step forward as the advocate and

friend of the poor. Being elected tribune, he laboured to enforce the Licinian law. Much strife ensued, and Gracchus was killed in a tumult which took place in the Forum. Many of his adherents fell with him. His party were terrified into silence for a time; but fourteen years after, Caius, his younger brother, took up his unfinished work, and resolved to pursue the same course. A price was set upon his head, and he was put to death by the consul Opimius. The people regarded the two brothers as martyrs; and a statue raised to their celebrated mother Cornelia, bore only this inscription: "THE MOTHER OF THE GRACCHI." The schemes of the Gracchi were, for the most part, just and beneficial; but, as reformers, they were too violent for the age in which they lived, and tried to pluck up long-tolerated abuses with too rude a hand.

The profligacy and corruption of the senate, when the check of popular control was removed, soon became manifest by their conduct in the JUGURTHINE WAR. Masinissa, king of Numidia, was succeeded by Micipsa, who educated his nephew Jugurtha with his own sons Adherbal and Hiempsal, and left them all joint heirs; but Jugurtha murdered Hiempsal, and banished Adherbal, who applied to Rome for aid. Jugurtha bribed the majority of the senate to wink at his bloody usurpation of the throne, and they divided the kingdom between the two cousins, assigning to Jugurtha the strongest cities and the best of the land. The latter next murdered his remaining cousin by cruel tortures. To punish this offence, one Roman army after another was sent into Numidia, but they fell under the power of Jugurtha's gold or

military strength. At length the war was resumed with fresh spirit, and was the means of bringing into notice two of the most extraordinary men who ever guided the affairs of Rome—**MARIUS**, the champion of the people, and **SYLLA**, the representative of the aristocracy. The conduct of the war was at first entrusted to Metellus, but Marius supplanted him. Jugurtha had been forced to seek refuge with his brother-in-law Bocchus, king of Mauritania, and their united armies were routed with great slaughter. Bocchus was bribed by Sylla to betray his royal relative, and the captive king was exhibited at the triumph of Marius. He is said to have gone mad during the procession, and died in the dungeon into which he was afterwards thrust.

In the year 101, the safety of Rome was endangered by a formidable invasion of the Teutones. Before they could reach the Italian territory, however, they were met in Transalpine Gaul by Marius, and defeated at Aquæ Sextiæ with immense slaughter. Meanwhile, Catulus had marched to oppose the Cimbri, who had appeared in Cisalpine Gaul, threatening Italy from the north. Sylla, the lieutenant of Marius, had left him and joined Catulus. On the plains of **VERCELLÆ** they gave battle to the barbarians, and annihilated their vast host. Marius arrived in time to finish their destruction; and by these great victories he rolled back the tide of Northern immigration for at least three centuries. During the continuance of the war he had been four times re-elected consul, and after his triumph he obtained the same office for the sixth time.

A fresh SLAVE WAR next broke out in Italy and Sicily, and not less than one million of this oppressed class perished in an ineffectual struggle for freedom.

The SOCIAL WAR which followed was still more serious. The Italians, who had in vain demanded the Roman franchise, attempted to obtain it by force of arms. Eight of the Italian states formed themselves into a Republic in opposition to that of Rome, and declared Corfinium their capital. The question was no longer whether they were to become citizens of Rome, but whether Rome was to continue mistress of the Italian Confederation. The Roman armies under Sylla at last reduced the revolted states to subjection, but not without heavy losses. When it was too late, the senate offered the desired privilege to all who would cease from hostilities within sixty days. This partial admission of the Italians to the franchise may be said to have annulled the old Roman constitution. It was at this time that one of the most remarkable characters of ancient history appeared on the scene, who considered himself not unequal to a conflict with Rome herself. This was Mithridates the Great, king of Pontus. He had availed himself of the opportunity afforded by the disturbances in the West to extend his own power in the East. He snatched the whole of Asia Minor, Macedonia, and Greece from their Roman rulers, and was everywhere hailed as a deliverer. Taking advantage of his popularity, he sent private orders to the governors of the provinces of Asia Minor, to cause all Romans and Italians to be massacred on one day: eighty thousand persons were murdered in cold blood,

and their property confiscated to the king (B.C. 88). Sylla was immediately appointed to oppose him, at which the wrath and disappointment of Marius was so great, that he determined, cost what it might, to secure the command for himself. While Sylla was in Campania, completing his levies, Marius stirred up a tumult at Rome, at the news of which Sylla resolved to lead the troops, destined for the East, back to his native city. He entered sword in hand, killing all whom he could, and banishing such as he pleased. Marius fled to Africa, where he remained for a while without molestation. Sylla hastened back to Campania, and shipped his troops for Greece. Landing in Epirus, he advanced to Athens. For the last time the Athenians defended themselves with something of the spirit of their fathers; but surrender became inevitable, and the conqueror entered the Piræus, destroying the dockyard and arsenal, but sparing the city itself. He transferred to his own palace the valuable library of the Athenian Apellicon, containing the manuscripts of Aristotle. Passing rapidly out of Attica, Sylla next encountered the Pontic army at Chæronea, and a battle ensued on the same ground where, two hundred and fifty years before, Philip of Macedon had overthrown the Athenians. The Romans triumphed, and after one more engagement at Orchomenus, Mithridates was compelled to sue for peace. He agreed to abandon all his conquests in Asia, to pay two thousand talents to indemnify Rome for her expenses, and surrender a fine fleet of seventy ships.

While these events were transpiring in Greece, Rome had been the scene of incessant civil war.



Sylla had scarcely gone, before Cinna, one of the consuls, declared for Marius. Octavius, his colleague, opposed him, and bloodshed ensued. Cinna was expelled, and retreated to Capua, where one hundred and fifty thousand Italians flocked to his standard. Marius joined him, with some Mauritanian horse. Together they besieged and took Rome. All the friends of Sylla were sacrificed to the revenge of Marius, who was elected consul for the seventh time. But his triumph was short: he died on the seventieth day after his election (B.C. 85). On his death Cinna remained absolute master of Rome; but Sylla, hearing of the murder of his friends, turned his face homewards. Cinna and his colleague Carbo resolved to attack him *en route*, and assembled an army at Ancona; but disaffection spread amongst the troops, and Cinna himself fell in a tumult which ensued. Sylla landed at Tarentum, and Cornelius Pompey, afterwards surnamed The Great, then only twenty-three, devoted himself to his cause. Young Marius headed the opposing party, which was principally composed of revolted Italians. Murder, conflagration, and plunder were the work of both. It was not till B.C. 81 that Sylla made himself master of Rome. His vengeance was even more terrible than that of Marius; and his executioners, termed the Cornelians, outdid the atrocities of the Marians. He ordered eight thousand persons, who had thrown themselves on his mercy, to be put to death in the Campus Martius; and having cut off every one whom he thought capable of opposing him, caused himself to be declared PERPETUAL DICTATOR (B.C. 82). But his

love of debauchery overcame his love of power. At the end of two years he unexpectedly resigned his irresponsible office, and retired to his country residence, where he soon after died.

After his death Pompey succeeded to all his influence with the soldiery, and was the most influential man in the Republic. Sertorius, one of the Marian faction, having seized on Spain, Pompey was deputed with Metellus to eject him; but before this could be effected, Sertorius was assassinated. The Spanish tribes submitted to Pompey, and he returned home in triumph (B.C. 72). During his absence a dangerous insurrection of slaves had broken out, headed by Spartacus, a Thracian gladiator, who, for a time, carried all before him, and assembled no fewer than one hundred thousand men.

Crassus (the colleague of Pompey) was deputed to lead an army against him; and, calling into the field Sylla's veterans, he drove the gladiatorial army to the southern point of Italy. Spartacus, with forty thousand of his followers, fell before him, and five thousand, captured afterwards, were hung upon trees between Rome and Capua. Pompey, as he entered Italy, on his return from Spain, met the remnant of the insurgents as they retreated, and slew them to a man. He wrote to the senate that Crassus had defeated the gladiators in a pitched battle; but it was *he* who had plucked up the war by the roots. This was the beginning of a rivalry between the two generals, which soon became dangerous. Each courted popular applause, the wealthy Crassus by entertaining the multitude in a style of princely

munificence—Pompey, by a show of restoring their rights. The latter reinstated the tribunes in their ancient power, which had been greatly abridged by Sylla, and none but the orator Roscius scrupled to vote for his appointment, when it was proposed that Pompey should, for three years, have absolute authority over the sea, to the Pillars of Hercules, in order to clear it of pirates, who committed great ravages, and prevented the importation of foreign grain. Thus empowered to raise as many mariners and soldiers, and to take as much money from the treasury as he pleased, Pompey, under the title of admiral, became absolute sovereign. In forty-nine days he brought the Piratical War to an end, having in that time destroyed one hundred and thirty-eight vessels, one hundred and twenty castles or harbours, and ten thousand pirates. He sent twenty thousand, whom he took prisoners, to rebuild and inhabit the deserted cities of Cilicia. In the same year Metellus Pius almost extirpated the inhabitants of Crete, and added that island to the dominions of Rome.

Pompey's success led to his appointment as generalissimo of the Roman armies against Mithridates, who was watching his opportunity to revenge himself on Rome, and had found a powerful ally in Tigranes, king of Armenia, one of the greatest kings of the East. Lucullus, a Roman general, with only two legions, had entered Armenia, and confronted his enormous host. Tigranes took to flight, and his new capital of Tigranocerta, on the Tigris, was taken. But Lucullus was unpopular, and a mutiny took place in his army. At last he was obliged to give way to

Pompey, who gained a series of brilliant conquests. Mithridates was driven from his throne, and put an end to his own life; Tigranes entered the Roman camp, and laid his sword and diadem at Pompey's feet. Both were restored, on condition that henceforth they were held in subjection to Rome. This threw Syria also into the hands of the Republic, Tigranes having governed it for fourteen years. It was in vain that the last of the Seleucidæ (two brothers) tried to secure it for themselves. It was reduced to the condition of a Roman province. Judæa shared the same fate, after Jerusalem had sustained a siege of three months; and thus all Western Asia crouched submissive at Pompey's feet. His triumph on his return to Rome was accounted more glorious than any which had been previously witnessed; three hundred and twenty-four captives of the highest rank walked before his chariot, and the throne, sceptre, and treasures of Mithridates were borne aloft. During Pompey's absence the men who possessed the greatest influence at Rome were CICERO, the great orator; CATO, a stern republican; LUCULLUS, the most magnificent, and CRASSUS, the richest man of the age. In the year 63 B.C., Cicero obtained the Consulship, his opponent being Catiline, a man of noble birth, but infamous life. The latter formed a conspiracy to plunder the Roman treasury, murder the consuls, and the senate, and fire the Capitol. The plot was discovered by the vigilance, and frustrated by the prudence of Cicero. After an ineffectual attempt to deny the charge, Catiline openly took the field at the head of a considerable army. In the meantime, his

associates in the city attempted to form an alliance with the Allobroges, a powerful Gallic tribe, who had sent ambassadors to petition the senate for some relief from the load of debt with which their nation was oppressed. These ambassadors betrayed their negotiations to Cicero, who took his measures so well, that he arrested the chiefs of the conspiracy with the proofs of their guilt on their persons. After a warm debate in the senate, it was resolved that the traitors should be put to death; JULIUS CÆSAR (who was now fast rising into notice as the chief of the popular party) protesting almost alone against the dangerous precedent of violating the law which forbade the capital punishment of a Roman citizen.

When Catiline heard of the fate of his associates, he attempted to lead his forces into Gaul, but he was overtaken by a consular army, defeated, and slain. It was at this time that Cicero received the title of "Father of his Country."

Pompey soon afterwards returned to Rome, and the old jealousies between him and Crassus were renewed; but Cæsar succeeded in bringing the rivals together, and uniting them with himself in a partnership of power generally called "THE FIRST TRIUMVIRATE" (B.C. 59).

Each Triumvir was to take a portion of the empire under his own sway for five years.

Cæsar was appointed to Gaul, Crassus to the East, and Pompey to Africa, Italy, and Spain.

It was then that Cæsar entered on that brilliant career of military glory which few subsequent conquerors have rivalled. He not only brought Gaul to

the form of a Roman province, but repulsed the German tribes, defeating their king Ariovistus ; and by means of a hasty invasion of Britain, brought that unknown region under the cognisance of the Romans, and prepared the way for the conquest which was effected one hundred years later.

Crassus meanwhile engaged in a war with the Parthians, hoping to acquire incalculable riches. On his way thither, he plundered the Temple at Jerusalem of the wealth untouched by Pompey, and which was about two millions sterling. He also seized the treasure of heathen temples, and extended his boundaries by the conquest of Mesopotamia. But he was betrayed into a hasty engagement with a superior force of Parthians, and defeated. Twenty thousand Romans fell in this battle—ten thousand were taken prisoners, and Crassus in attempting a negotiation was slain. This event, and the death of Julia, Cæsar's daughter, who had been married to Pompey, disturbed the union of the remaining Triumvirs (b.c. 54).

Pompey had become envious of exploits which obscured the fame of his own achievements, and obtained from the senate an order that Cæsar should disband his army. He naturally refused to do so, as long as Pompey remained at the head of his troops. The senate then deprived Cæsar of his office of Proconsul of Gaul, and voted him an outlaw. Pompey was entrusted with the defence of the Republic against him.

Mark Antony (who now rises into notice) and Q. Cassius, both tribunes of the people, had opposed this measure, and fleeing from the city disguised as

slaves, joined Cæsar, who, on receiving intelligence of the decree of the senate, had left Ravenna, and crossed the RUBICON, which separated Italy Proper from Cisalpine Gaul, and which was long considered by the Romans as the sacred limit of their home possessions. The places along his line of march submitted. Pompey fled to Capua, but seeing the people ready to rise *in favour* of his rival, rather than *against* him, he retired to Brundisium, and on being besieged there by Cæsar, crossed over to Epirus, the whole fleet being at his command. Two hundred senators were with him, and the chief citizens of Rome. At Thessalonica, where he fixed his head quarters, he gathered around him one hundred and forty thousand warriors, drawn from all the provinces under his command.

Cicero, who had been banished through the influence of Clodius, but recalled the following year, hesitated which of the Triumvirs to join, but finally accepted a command in Pompey's army. Cato took the same side.

Cæsar, on arriving at Rome, assumed the entire control of the state; sent armies into all the provinces where Pompey had established governors, and reserved to himself the conduct of the war in Spain. In a few months he drove the whole of his rival's troops out of that country, and then made preparations for following him into the East.

Cæsar landed near Dyrrachium, with an army greatly inferior to that of Pompey. A tedious campaign began, in which both leaders showed themselves equally reluctant to hazard a general engagement. At length, however, Pompey gave battle to Cæsar at

PHARSALIA (July, B.C. 48), and the complete victory of the latter may be said to have decided the fate of the world. Pompey's fortunes were ruined, and he fled to Egypt, trusting that he would receive protection from the young king of that country (PTOLEMY DIONYSUS), with whose father he had been united by the strictest bonds of friendship. But the guardians of Ptolemy resolved to murder the unfortunate fugitives, and entrusted the execution of the crime to Septimius, a Roman deserter, and Achilles, the captain of the Egyptian guards. Cæsar, who pursued his great rival into Egypt, was met on his landing by one of those engaged in the murder, who brought him the embalmed head of his enemy. But Cæsar turned away in horror from the sight, and ordered it to be burnt with due honors.

His next task was to arrange the disputed succession of the crown of Egypt; but led away by the charms of the princess Cleopatra, he shewed an undue preference for her interests, and thus induced the partisans of the young king Ptolemy to take up arms. Cæsar was besieged in Alexandria, and was exposed to great danger. He was at last relieved by a large body of troops who arrived to his assistance, and having defeated the army of Ptolemy, placed Cleopatra on the throne.

Early in the year 47 B.C. Cæsar had been proclaimed Dictator for the second time, and had named Mark Antony Master of the Horse, but for nine months the blandishments of Cleopatra detained the conqueror in Egypt. At length shaking off his apparent lethargy, he marched into Syria, to crush



Pharnaces, son of Mithridates the Great, who was forming an extensive empire. Cæsar easily subdued him, and all parts of the East being again restored to tranquil submission, he re-entered the gates of Rome, and applied himself with his usual industry and rapidity to settle the most urgent difficulties, and complete all pressing business. He then proceeded to Africa, where Cato, and the other Pompeian chiefs (including Pompey's sons) were assembled. He forced his enemies to an engagement at Thapsus, and gave them a complete overthrow. From thence he advanced to Utica, which was garrisoned by Cato, who, seeing that his friends were resolved on yielding, committed suicide. The sons of Pompey made their escape into Spain, where they soon collected a formidable party.

In 46 B.C. Cæsar returned to Rome, and found time to celebrate four triumphs, which exceeded in magnificence anything which had ever been seen of the kind; but their real splendour consisted in the announcement of a general amnesty for all the opponents of the Dictator.

Having provided for the safety of the city during his absence, Cæsar hastened to Spain, to crush the last of his opponents who still made head under the sons of Pompey. In the spring of 44 B.C. the two armies met in the plains of Munda, and the battle was so desperate, that Cæsar and his veterans were exposed to great dangers. At last victory declared in his favour. Cneius Pompey was taken and slain, and Sextus escaped to the mountains of Celtiberia.

Having thus completely extinguished the last

embers of the civil war, Cæsar applied himself to the execution of those vast designs which he had formed for the improvement of the empire. He was the first Roman ruler who extended his view beyond the politics of the city, and took an imperial survey of the vast dominions subject to his sway.

All the cities of Transpadane Gaul, already Latin, were raised to the Roman franchise, and the same privilege was bestowed on many communities of Transalpine Gaul and Spain. Corinth and Carthage were made military colonies, and regained somewhat of their ancient splendour and renown. For the transaction of public business, Cæsar erected the Basilica Julia, and under his patronage the first public library was opened at Rome. One of his greatest deeds was the Reform of the Calendar, and the construction of the one, which (with a slight alteration) continues to date every transaction and letter of the present day.

But, notwithstanding the moderation of his government, there were many who hated him, and a large body of the senators, believing that he aimed at the title of king, conspired for his destruction. They were sixty in number; most of them owed to Cæsar their lives and their honors; and Brutus and Cassius, who headed the despicable band, were under special obligations to the Dictator. On the Ides of March, as soon as he had taken his place in the senate, he was surrounded by the conspirators, who rushed upon him with their daggers, and he sank at the base of Pompey's statue, pierced with twenty-three wounds (B.C. 44).

His murder produced the utmost confusion. The

senators fled to the Capitol, or hid themselves in their houses. Tranquillity prevailed until the day of Cæsar's funeral; when Mark Antony, by a studied harangue, so inflamed the passions of the populace, that they stormed the senate-house, tore up its benches to make a funeral pile for the body, and raised such a conflagration, that several houses were burnt down. Seventeen years of bloodshed and confusion proved how much the Romans had lost in Cæsar. OCTAVIUS, his grand-nephew, and adopted son, then a gentle youth of eighteen, pursuing his studies in Greece, hastened to Rome to claim the inheritance, and avenge the murder of his uncle. But he was coldly received by Antony, who had spent the greater part of the money left by Cæsar, and a quarrel quickly ensued between them. But their mutual interests afterwards led to the formation of a league, in which Lepidus was included. Thus, Octavius, Lepidus, and Antony, formed the SECOND TRIUMVIRATE (B.C. 43), and their confederacy was cemented by the blood of the noblest citizens of Rome, shed in a proscription more ruthless and sanguinary than any published by Marius or Sylla. Among their victims was Cicero, the greatest orator Rome ever produced. The Triumvirs next prepared to attack Brutus and Cassius, and Macedonia became the theatre of the new civil war. A desperate battle took place near Philippi, in which the conspirators were defeated, and Cassius slain. Brutus soon after destroyed himself, and thus the Triumvirs reigned without control. Antony went to regulate the affairs of the empire in the East; and Octavius, who remained in Italy, soon found a pretext

for getting rid of Lepidus ; and the latter, deserted by his soldiers, was banished to Circæum, where he spent the rest of his days in obscurity.

Antony's conduct, meanwhile, had made him contemptible to the Romans. Having been engaged in some transactions respecting Egypt, he became so captivated by Cleopatra, that he sacrificed every consideration of duty and interest to his admiration for her. Rousing himself for a time, he led a large army against the Parthians, but was worsted by that warlike people, and returned with the loss of a fourth part of his troops, and all his stores. His foolish and vicious behaviour afforded Octavius ample grounds for proceeding to extremities against him. War was declared against Antony by the senate, and Octavius took the command of the forces. The first engagement was a naval one, fought near Actium in Epirus. Cleopatra, who commanded a division of Antony's fleet, at length was seen flying at the head of sixty ships, and Antony disgracefully followed her. The land forces submitted to Octavius without striking a blow.

The conqueror returned to Italy, after founding the city of Nicopolis to celebrate his victory ; and it was midsummer (b.c. 30) before he arrived in Egypt. He then appeared before Pelusium, which instantly surrendered ; and on the first of August he entered the open gates of Alexandria. Cleopatra shut herself up in a sort of mausoleum built to receive her body after death, and caused a report to be spread that she was dead. Upon this news Antony stabbed himself. The queen seems to have formed some hope of obtaining

the same influence over Octavius that she had exercised over Antony; but finding the conqueror insensible to her charms, and receiving secret information that he reserved her to adorn his triumph, she caused an asp to be conveyed to her in a basket of figs, and thus died. Egypt was reduced to the form of a Roman province, and its immense riches enabled Octavius to pay all he owed to his soldiers.

On his return to Rome, the senate saluted him by the title of AUGUSTUS, and by a unanimous vote conceded to him the entire authority of the state. The title by which he liked to be known was that of PRINCE. The most important provinces were governed by Deputies appointed by himself. The rest were left to the rule of the senatorial proconsuls. The whole world was a gainer by the substitution of the imperial rule for the constitution falsely named republican. Literature and the arts rose from their slumbers. Livy, Virgil, Horace, Strabo, and Ovid all belong to this era; and Augustus, by his great architectural works, was enabled to boast that he had "found Rome of brick and left it of marble." He was only thirty-two when he was proclaimed sole Imperator for life, with power to transmit his dignities to whomsoever he pleased. The whole Roman world was brought into a state of outward tranquillity; and the Temple of Janus, which had remained open almost ever since the days of Numa Pompilius, was ordered to be shut. During this interval of universal peace, the Saviour of mankind was born.

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## HISTORY OF BACTRIA AND PARTHIA.

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### PERIOD VII.

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BACTRIA, one of the conquests of Alexander, formed part of the kingdom of the Seleucidæ until B.C. 255, when Theodotus, its governor, revolted from Antiochus II., and founded the Greek kingdom of Bactria, which lasted till B.C. 125, and extended beyond the limits of Bactria, including a part of Sogdiana. Parthia, with Hyrcania, formed one of the satrapies of Alexander the Great, and also fell to the share of the Seleucidæ, but revolted under ARSACES, who founded an independent monarchy. About the year B.C. 130 the Parthians overthrew the kingdom of Bactria, so that their empire extended from the Euphrates to the Indus, and from the Indian Ocean to the Oxus. On the west their progress was checked by Mithridates and Tigranes, till those kings fell successively before the Romans, who were thus brought into collision with the Parthians. After the memorable destruction of Crassus and his army by Orodes, the Parthians threatened Syria and Asia Minor, but their progress was stopped by two signal defeats suffered from Antony's legate in B.C. 39 and 38. The preparations for renewing the war with Rome were rendered fruit-

less by the contest for the Parthian throne between PHRAORTES IV. and TIRIDATES, which led to an appeal to Augustus. After this the Parthian empire began to decline, and ceased to be formidable to the Romans.

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## HISTORY OF THE JEWS.

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### PERIOD VII.

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At the opening of this period the Jews were fast sinking into their lowest and worst condition.

Demetrius Nicator, king of Syria, recognised the independence of their nation.

SIMON MACCABEUS was owned as a prince and high-priest (B.C. 142), and became exceedingly wealthy; but he was murdered, with his two eldest sons, by his son-in-law Ptolemy, and succeeded by his younger son

JOHN, surnamed HYRCANUS (B.C. 136). He conquered the Samaritans, and destroyed their temple; but the people still continued their form of worship on Mount Gerizim. He also subdued the Idumeans, and incorporated them with the Jews. In fact, his dominions nearly equalled in extent those of David and Solomon. He carefully cultivated the friendship of the Romans, and died B.C. 107.

He was succeeded by his son

ARISTOBULUS, a weak and feeble-minded prince, who died of remorse for having put his mother and brother to death on groundless suspicion. The crown and priesthood next devolved on

ALEXANDER JANNÆUS, his brother, whose reign was disturbed by the intrigues of the Pharisees, whom he



treated with inhuman cruelty. Drunkenness brought him to the grave (B.C. 79). He bequeathed the regency to his wife Alexandra, and the crown to whichever of her sons she should find most worthy of the succession. She conferred the high-priesthood on

HYRCANUS, the eldest son, but on her death,

ARISTOBULUS, the younger, deposed his brother.

Antipater, an Idumean proselyte, believing that he might reign in the name of Hyrcanus, conveyed that prince to Petra; and having levied an army of Arabs, invaded Judea, and besieged Aristobulus in Jerusalem. Both parties implored the aid of Pompey, who was then at Damascus. Aristobulus was seized and kept in chains by Pompey, who laid siege to Jerusalem, and after three months took it by storm on the Sabbath day. The Temple and its treasures were spared by the conqueror, but the walls and fortifications were levelled to the ground. Aristobulus and his family were carried to Rome; Hyrcanus was nominally restored; but all the real power of the state fell into the hands of

ANTIPATER. This crafty politician supported the cause of Pompey during the civil wars, and then won the favour of Cæsar, by rendering him effective aid when he was blockaded in Alexandria. In reward for these services Herod, his second son, was appointed governor of Galilee, where he signalised himself by extirpating the bands of robbers that infested the country. After the death of Cæsar, Judea was not less distracted than the Roman empire. Antipater was poisoned, his eldest son Phasaël put to death, and Herod driven into exile. Through the influence of

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Mark Antony, however, Herod was not only restored to his former power, but created king of Judea (B.C. 40). The Jews were reluctant to submit to an Idumean, and were not conciliated by his marriage with Mariamne, an Asmonean princess. Herod had therefore to conquer his kingdom, and his rule was tyrannical and oppressive. The hatred of the Jews towards him was increased by his building a theatre in Jerusalem, and outside the walls an amphitheatre for the barbarous shows of gladiators and wild beasts, which were the disgrace of heathen Rome. To win the favor of the people he rebuilt the Temple, ten thousand labourers being employed on the work. While he thus lived in constant dread of being hurled from his throne by his discontented subjects, "There came wise men from the East to Jerusalem, saying: 'Where is He that is born king of the Jews? for we have seen His star in the East, and are come to worship Him.'" Matt. ii.

It was quite consistent with Herod's character that he should decree the murder of the Innocents, with which we are so familiar. He did not long survive this act of cruelty. He died in dreadful torments shortly afterwards, in the seventieth year of his age.

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## HISTORY OF EGYPT.

PERIOD VII.

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No Egyptian reign was ever more tyrannical, nor abounded with greater crimes than that of

PTOLEMY PHYSCON, who, on the death of his brother Philometer became sole king, and married his sister and brother's widow, Cleopatra. Vice and injustice reigned throughout the country, and so great was the terror inspired at Alexandria by the king's barbarities, that the principal inhabitants left the city.

The gold mines of Berenice were extensively worked during this reign, prisoners and slaves, both men, women, and children, being condemned to labour in them.

Ptolemy divorced Cleopatra, and married her daughter of the same name. To her he left the kingdom at his death in B.C. 116, jointly with her son

PTOLEMY LATHYRUS, but each was supported by a distinct party. Both took part in the civil wars of the Jews, Cleopatra assisting the Jews, and Lathyrus the Samaritans.

By this impolitic step he lost the goodwill of the Alexandrian Jews, and was compelled to flee from Egypt, and withdraw to Cyprus, which had been formed into a separate kingdom, and was governed by his younger brother

**ALEXANDER.** This prince was now summoned to Egypt, and made joint ruler with his mother, but unable to bear her tyranny, he caused her to be murdered. He was, however, hated by the people, who rose against him, and restored Lathyrus.

Thebes alone refused to submit to him, and for three years vainly withstood his arms. The temples were demolished, and this great city of the past became a heap of ruins. Lathyrus died in 81 B.C., and was succeeded by his daughter

**CLEOPATRA BERENICE**, but her reign was destined to be short.

Alexander, the son of Ptolemy Alexander by his first wife, claimed the crown, and bribed the Romans to take his side. The senate decreed that he should marry Cleopatra, and reign with her. He obeyed the decree, but put her to death on the day of the nuptials. His guards then rose against him, and killed him. No legitimate male heir remained, and

**PTOLEMY AULETES**, the illegitimate son of Lathyrus, was acknowledged king. He was in no way superior to his predecessors, and the Romans gradually gained entire control in the country, which was tottering to its ruin. An insurrection was formed against Auletes, who fled in disguise, and in the twenty-fourth year of his reign arrived at Rome as a suppliant. Cicero made an oration on his behalf, and Cæsar took his part, but he was not able to procure the aid of troops. At length Gabinius, pro-consul of Syria, undertook his cause, and Auletes reappeared on the confines of Egypt with a Roman army, and was easily re-established on the throne. He died B.C. 55, leaving his kingdom to the too celebrated

CLEOPATRA his daughter, and his eldest son Ptolemy, who were to marry, and reign jointly.

The claims of Cleopatra were, however, set aside by Pothimus, the officer in charge of her young brother, and she fled into Syria.

Meanwhile, Pompey landed—a defeated man—on the shores of Egypt, and was treacherously slain.

Cæsar followed him closely, and took upon himself to decide the quarrel between Cleopatra and her brother.

Cleopatra, confident of her own charms, entered Cæsar's palace in disguise, and obtaining an interview, was successful in her suit. Orders were sent to Ptolemy that she was to be acknowledged as queen. Open war followed, and the position of Cæsar was full of danger. Fearing lest his galleys should fall into Egyptian hands, he ordered them to be set on fire. The flames spread to the Museum, and the celebrated Alexandrian Library was utterly destroyed. A fierce struggle ensued between the two parties, but at length forces from Cilicia and Syria, came to Cæsar's aid, and the Egyptians were no match for Roman armies. Ptolemy was drowned in endeavouring to effect his escape, and Cæsar became entire master of Egypt. He treated Cleopatra as his wife, and sacrificed everything to her. When he returned to Rome, she followed him, but on his assassination returned to Egypt.

After the battle of Philippi, Antony sent orders to her to meet him at Tarsus, and answer to the charge of having lent assistance to his enemies. She went, and completely won the heart of Antony by her beauty and varied talents. He followed her back to Alexandria, and executed all her caprices, till complicated

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disasters roused him from his lethargy, and he returned to Rome. After three years he again sought her fascinating society, and surrendered himself absolutely to her will, sending messengers to Rome to declare himself divorced from his faithful wife Octavia, and ordering her to quit his house. Her brother Octavius at once declared war against Cleopatra, whose preparations for the conflict were on the grandest scale. The battle of Actium was fought (B.C. 31) and decided her fate. Victory yielded to Augustus, and a year afterwards Cleopatra became his prisoner.

Perceiving that he designed her to grace his triumph, she poisoned herself, Antony having already destroyed himself on hearing a false report of her death (B.C. 30).

Egypt thenceforth became a Roman province, but it preserved its commercial importance; and Alexandria long continued to be the most wealthy and busy city of trade in the world.

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## HISTORY OF SYRIA.

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PERIOD VII.

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SYRIA, during the whole of this period, was the scene of incessant strife and insurrection. The Seleucidæ were continually driven from the throne by impostors, and many cities and provinces were separated from the Syrian kingdom.

Weary of enduring the calamities and bloodshed of these protracted dissensions, the people at length expelled the royal family, and gave the crown to Tigranes, king of Armenia (B.C. 83).

After a long, and not inglorious reign, he was involved in a war with the Romans, which ended in his complete overthrow. He was forced to resign Syria to the conquerors (B.C. 64), and thus the kingdom of the Seleucidæ was made a Roman province, and the family soon after became extinct, in the person of

SELEUCUS CYBIOSACTES (B.C. 57), who was raised to the throne of Egypt by his wife, the princess Berenice, and afterwards murdered by her orders.

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## HISTORY OF PONTUS.

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PERIOD VII.

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PONTUS became an independent kingdom after the battle of Ipsus, but the first of its monarchs who was remarkable in history was

MITHRIDATES VI., surnamed The Great.

In the early part of his reign, he subdued the barbarian tribes between the Euxine and the confines of Armenia, including the whole of Colchis, and the province called Lesser Armenia, and even extended his conquests beyond the Caucasus.

On the death of Parisades, king of the Bosphorus, his dominions were incorporated with those of Mithridates. The latter soon began to deem himself equal to a contest with Rome itself, and succeeded in making himself master of the province of Asia. He then issued a sanguinary order to put to death all the Romans and Italians within his newly acquired dominions, and eighty thousand are said to have perished in this fearful massacre. Then followed the war with Sylla, which we have already noticed (see History of Rome, Period VII.), and which ended so disastrously for Mithridates.

The Second Mithridatic war was unimportant, but the Third was the one in which Lucullus, and subse-



quently Pompey, distinguished themselves. The king of Pontus, great as he was, could not stand before the Roman armies, and he found in his own family worse enemies than his open foes. His daughters were betrayed to the Romans, his army mutinied, and finally his own son revolted against him. Borne down by this complication of misfortunes, the aged monarch committed suicide (b.c. 64). The estimation in which he was held by his adversaries is the strongest testimony to his great abilities. Cicero calls him the greatest of all kings after Alexander, and the most formidable of the opponents of Rome.

Pontus was permitted for some years to have nominal sovereigns, but it was in reality a Roman province.

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PERIOD VIII.  

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*Began with the Birth of Christ, and ended with the Building of Constantinople, A.D. 330.*

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HISTORY OF ROME.  

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PERIOD VIII.  

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THE great prosperity of the reign of Augustus was first interrupted by the rebellion of the German provinces, provoked by the extortions of Quintilius Varus. They found a leader in Hermann, a young, warlike prince, called by the Romans Arminius, who united his countrymen in a secret confederacy; and then, pretending friendship to Varus, conducted him into the depths of a forest, where his troops could neither fight nor retreat. In this situation Hermann attacked the Romans, and so harassed them, that most of the officers slew themselves in despair. The legionaries, left without leaders, were cut to pieces; and thus the Romans received the greatest overthrow which they had suffered since the defeat of Crassus. For several months the emperor abandoned himself to transports of grief, and it is said that this event hastened his end. He died A.D. 14, ignorant of that

Saviour who was then a youth at Nazareth. The name of Augustus was from this time given to all the emperors of Rome, while that of Cæsar, which was borne as a kind of family name by the first twelve emperors, was bestowed on the intended successor to the throne, as the earnest of his inheritance. The step-son of Augustus,

TIBERIUS CÆSAR, had been appointed as his successor. He began his reign by procuring the murder of Agrippa Posthumus, grandson of the late emperor, whom he dreaded as a formidable rival, and thus his fierce and jealous passions were soon manifested. His own depravity was exceeded by that of his minister, the infamous Sejanus, who secretly aspired to the empire. By his contrivance, Drusus, the son of Tiberius, was poisoned. He then persuaded the emperor to remove from Rome to Campania, where he wallowed in vice; while Sejanus put to death the most eminent senators, after making them undergo the mockery of a trial. He also persecuted the Jews, who were expelled from Rome, and four thousand were drafted into the army, and sent to serve in Sardinia, where most of them perished. A report of the proceedings of Sejanus at last reached Tiberius, at a moment when he happened to be sober. He wrote to the senate, desiring that he should be imprisoned; but they went beyond their orders, and strangled him the same day. His execution was followed by the massacre of his innocent children, friends, and relations, who were put to death without trial. Since such was the character of Roman government in the capital, we are better able to understand

the unjust crucifixion of our Lord, under the prætorship of Pontius Pilate, two years only after the events above alluded to (A.D. 33). The cruelty of Tiberius increased tenfold after the removal of his favorite, and in all his extravagances he was supported by the servile senate. At length continued debauchery undermined his constitution, and finding death approaching, he bequeathed the empire to his great-nephew,

CAIUS CALIGULA (A.D. 37). His first acts gave promise of a just and beneficent reign; but after a serious illness, which probably weakened his mental powers, he appears as a sanguinary and licentious madman. He often caused persons of both sexes, and of all ages, to be tortured to death for his amusement, while taking his meals; and on one occasion, during the games in the circus, he ordered a great number of the spectators to be seized, and thrown to the wild beasts. He considered himself a god, and built a temple to himself, appointing priests to celebrate his worship. His horse Incitatus was frequently a guest at the imperial table, feeding on gilt oats, and drinking the most costly wines from jewelled goblets. At length the Romans became weary of so wicked and ridiculous a monster, and formed a conspiracy for his destruction. He was murdered in one of the passages of the circus by Cassius Chaerea, captain of the prætorian guards (A.D. 40). His body lay for a long time exposed, but was finally interred like that of a slave. His uncle

CLAUDIUS, a prince of weak intellect, was raised to the throne by the conspirators. The unfortunate

idiot thus placed at the head of the empire was, during his entire reign, the puppet of worthless favorites, among whom the most infamous were the empresses Messalina and Agrippina, the eunuch Posides, and the freedmen Pallas and Narcissus. He visited Britain in person to obtain the honor of the victories won by his generals, Aulus Plautius and Vespasian, but remained there only sixteen days. It was before this emperor that Caractacus pleaded his cause, and was pardoned. His wife Messalina was the incarnation of female wickedness; at length Narcissus, one of her favorites, gave Claudius private information of her guilt, and by his orders she was put to death. He then married his niece Agrippina, the mother by a former marriage of the notorious Nero. Anxious to see her son in possession of the empire, she determined to poison her husband; and as he often ate till he was stupefied, she found no difficulty in doing so. He thus expired (A.D. 54). Several public works of great utility were executed by Claudius. He built the famous Claudian aqueduct (Aqua Claudia), the port of Ostia, and the Emissarium which drained the Fucine Lake into the Liris. He added to the Roman dominions Thrace, Lycia, part of Britain, and the wide territories of Mauritania, which he divided into two provinces, Tingitana and Caesariana. The capital of the former was Tangiers, of the latter Cirta, now Constantine. In his reign the Jews were banished from Rome, "because they were engaged in constant tumults excited amongst them by one Chrestos." St. Paul's friends, Aquila and Priscilla, were among the banished.

NERO, who next occupied the imperial throne, had been educated by Seneca, one of the ablest of Roman moralists; and at the beginning of his reign was universally admired for his justice, liberality, and humanity. The power which Agrippina was so anxious he should possess proved ruinous to both. He became impatient of her control, and caused her to be killed. So long as the government of Rome was in the hands of Seneca, and Burrhus, Nero's extravagances and cruelty were somewhat restrained; but in the year 62 Burrhus died, and Nero appointed in his stead two prefects of the prætorians—Fenius Rufus, a man noted for indolence, and Tigellinus, an infamous profligate. He next divorced his wife Octavia, and married Poppæa Sabina, whom he killed by a brutal kick with his foot. He then proposed to marry Antonia, the daughter of Claudius, though he had murdered her husband (C. Sulla), and on her declining the honour, he put her to death. A dreadful conflagration, which lasted nine days, and destroyed the greater part of the city of Rome, is thought to have been kindled by his orders, from the desire of building a new city, and having the glory of calling it by his name. He endeavoured to remove from himself the odium of this deed by accusing the Christians, whose numbers were rapidly increasing in every part of the empire. A barbarous persecution followed. The Christians were covered with the skins of wild beasts, and torn to pieces by devouring dogs, or wrapped up in combustible garments, and lighted like torches to illuminate the darkness of the night. For this tragical spectacle Nero lent his own gardens, and

delighted in watching their agonies. He then undertook the re-construction of the city, enclosing the whole of the Palatine with an enormous palace, which was almost entirely wainscotted, ceiled, and roofed with gold, and extended its architecture in triple colonnades of a mile long. The expense of this building, the emperor's luxuries, and the entertainments given to the people, exhausted the exchequer, and led to a system of plunder and extortion which nearly caused the dissolution of the empire. At length a conspiracy was formed for his destruction by Cneius Piso, but it was accidentally discovered, and a great number of eminent persons, suspected of being concerned in it, were put to death, among whom were the philosopher Seneca, and the poet Lucan. But insurrections broke out in other quarters. Julius Vindex raised the standard of revolt in Gaul, and proclaimed Sergius Galba (at that time governor of Spain) emperor. The smothered feeling of discontent everywhere burst into a flame; and Nero, deserted by all, fled from Rome, and with the assistance of his secretary committed suicide (A.D. 68). With him ended the Julian or first Imperial House. Its extinction led to a series of sanguinary wars, arising from disputed successions, and was therefore a serious calamity to the empire.

GALBA (A.D. 68) reigned only six months, and was deservedly unpopular. Gold purchased all dignities and excused all crimes; but as neither money nor feasts were given to the troops, they became mutinous, and turned their eyes to Otho (a patrician, to whom Galba owed his elevation to the throne), who was

brave and popular, and squandered money with a lavish hand. He was soon proclaimed emperor, and Galba slain (A.D. 69).

OTHO, thus raised to the empire, was, during his brief reign, a passive instrument in the hands of the licentious soldiers. A formidable rival appeared in Vitellius, the commander of the legions in Lower Germany. Otho was lord of the East, whilst Vitellius united the suffrages of the West. War ensued, and the hostile armies met at Bedriacum, near the banks of the Po. Here Otho was signally defeated, and before the next morning stabbed himself to the heart, having only reigned three months.

VITELLIUS (A.D. 69) was proclaimed. He reigned less than a year, but made himself intolerable to his subjects, entrusting all the power of the state to unworthy favorites, and devoting himself wholly to the pleasures of the table, on which he squandered nearly seven millions of money in less than four months. But a competitor was destined to appear in a distant province.

VESPASIAN, who had long been commander of the armies in the East, was proclaimed Emperor at Alexandria, and commenced his march towards Rome. Vitellius roused himself from his sloth, and made an effort to defend himself, but his troops were defeated near Cremona—and meanwhile Antonius, the general of Vespasian, attacked Rome itself. Vitellius hid himself in the palace, but was dragged ignominiously through the streets to the place of common execution, and put to death with a thousand wounds. The accession of Vespasian diffused universal joy. He



restored the discipline of the army, revived the authority of the senate, and reformed the courts of law. The early part of his reign was signalised by the termination of the Jewish war, and the destruction of Jerusalem and its Temple (A.D. 70).

Titus and his father triumphed together on account of this success, and a triumphal arch was erected for the former, which continues nearly perfect to this day.

The completion of the conquest of Britain took place during this reign under Agricola, a native of Gaul, justly celebrated for his great merits as a general and a statesman.

Vespasian rebuilt the Capitol, erected the beautiful Temple of Peace upon the Via Sacra, repaired the Temple of Concord, and built the famous Amphitheatre, the ruins of which are to this day a striking monument of the glory of ancient Rome. He died A.D. 79, and was succeeded by

Titus, who even surpassed his father in the virtues of his character. His reign was signalised by that dreadful eruption of Mount Vesuvius which overwhelmed the cities of Herculaneum and Pompeii.

Then followed a fire which greatly injured many of the public buildings; and was succeeded by a plague, during which ten thousand persons were buried in a day. Titus died suddenly, not without suspicion of poison from his brother

DOMITIAN, whose character was the reverse of his own. At first he affected virtues which he did not possess, but soon began to indulge in the most sanguinary excesses, putting to death, without the form of trial, the most eminent senators and knights. He

enviously recalled Agricola from Britain, where his exploits had completed the conquest of the island, and he probably contrived his death.

In the year 95, after a rest of thirty years, the Christians became the objects of imperial persecution. The Apostle John was banished to Patmos, and Clemens Flavius, the consul, was executed. It was Domitian's custom to inscribe on a roll the names of the persons he designed to slaughter. One day, a child took this paper from under the emperor's pillow, and gave it to the empress Domitia. She saw, with consternation, her own name on the fatal list, as well as those of the imperial chamberlain, and the captain of the prætorian guards, to whom she immediately communicated their danger. They at once conspired for his destruction, and he was murdered in his bed (A.D. 96), the last of the emperors commonly called "The Twelve Cæsars."

NERVA was chosen to the sovereignty by a unanimous vote of the senate, though a foreigner and seventy years of age. He was too benevolent and gentle for the position he occupied, and finding himself despised on account of his age and infirmities, he adopted

TRAJAN, who was at that time governor of Lower Germany. Nerva soon after died (A.D. 98), and his successor is generally spoken of as the best of the emperors. He was equally great as a ruler, a general, and a man. He restored as much of the old constitution as was consistent with a monarchy, granting freedom of speech to the senate, and their former authority to the magistrates. He took the field in person against the king of Dacia, who despairing of

success, committed suicide, and his territories not only fell under the Roman yoke, but became some of the fairest provinces of the empire, which reached its greatest extent at this period.

Arabia Petræa was subdued in the same year (A.D. 106), and annexed by the governor of Syria. The rejoicings at Rome lasted one hundred and twenty days, and during the peace which followed, Trajan adorned the capital with that remarkable pillar which to this day bears his name. Ambitious of further conquest, he made an expedition into the East, resolved to contend with the Parthians for the sovereignty of Central Asia.

He reduced Armenia to the state of a Roman province; and then throwing a bridge over the Tigris, conquered the greater part of ancient Assyria. Seleucia and Ctesiphon were besieged and taken, and the invasion of India contemplated, but no permanent advantages resulted from these conquests. Trajan died on his way back to Italy, at Selinus in Cilicia.

The only blot on his memory is his persecution of the Christians in the year 107, caused, no doubt, by a blind zeal for the national religion, of which he was the high priest. He was succeeded by his cousin and pupil (A.D. 117),

HADRIAN, who at once abandoned all the conquests of his predecessor, and made the Euphrates the eastern frontier of the empire, according to the counsel of Augustus. He was, however, by no means inactive, and formed the resolution of visiting every province of his dominions. He began by entering Gaul, Germany, and Britain, where he built the famous wall from the

Eden to the Tyne, which bears his name. He twice visited Asia, but much of his attention was devoted to Athens. He completed many of its buildings, and added so many new ones, that a whole quarter of the city was called after his name. The persecution of the Christians having recommenced with fresh violence, Quadratus, the bishop of Athens, and Aristides, a Christian philosopher, took advantage of his visit to Greece to present him with "Apologies for the Christian religion," which seem to have convinced him of the innocence of his Christian subjects. Hadrian died in the year 139, having adopted

TITUS ANTONINUS, who became his successor, and was deservedly named PRUS. He reigned for twenty-two years, and won universal esteem, labouring incessantly for the public good. He suspended the persecution of the Christians, and his virtues so conciliated the affection of foreigners, that peace prevailed throughout the empire. On his death in the year 161 his adopted sons

MARCUS AURELIUS ANTONINUS and

LUCIUS VERUS became joint emperors. The former was virtuous and wise, the latter vicious and contemptible. Aurelius, therefore, took an early opportunity of sending his unworthy colleague from Rome, entrusting him with the command of the army sent against the Parthians, who had over-run Syria. But Verus remained at Antioch, sunk in sloth and sensuality, and it devolved upon his lieutenants to uphold the reputation of the Roman arms. Scarcely had the affairs of the East been arranged, when a dangerous war was commenced by the Marcomanni on the

German frontiers; both emperors took the field, but at the opening of the campaign Verus fell a victim to his intemperance (A.D. 171), and Aurelius soon restored the fortune of the empire; but the hardships he endured, and the severity of the climate, were supposed to have occasioned his death, which took place at Vindobona (Vienna), A.D. 180. With him the glory of the empire may be said to have expired; he was the last emperor who made the good of his subjects the chief object of his government; and he was one of the few princes who attained a high rank in literature. His son

COMMODUS became emperor, and exceeded all his predecessors in extravagant iniquity. The accounts given of his barbarities are almost incredible. He entered the lists with the common gladiators in the circus, and is said to have come off victor seven hundred and thirty-five times. In the private school of gladiators, numbers of lives were sacrificed for his amusement. At length he was poisoned by a woman named Martia, who, fearing his recovery, caused him to be strangled in his bed (A.D. 192).

HELVIVS PERTINAX, prefect of the city, was chosen emperor, and did all he could to repair the evils occasioned by the misconduct of Commodus.

These reforms endeared him to the senate and people, but provoked the anger of the turbulent prætorians, who broke into open rebellion, and murdered him in his palace, after a reign of three months (A.D. 193). The soldiers then resolved to sell the empire to the highest bidder, and it was purchased by

DIDIUS JULIANUS, a lawyer of immense wealth, for a

sum equal to about a million pounds sterling. The affairs of the empire became worse and worse, and three competitors appeared to contest the throne—Albinus in Britain, Niger in Syria, and Severus in Illyria. The unfortunate Didius was betrayed by his own officers, and beheaded after a miserable reign of sixty-six days.

SEVERUS was accepted at Rome, and having conciliated Albinus, he marched against Niger, and defeated him in several engagements. Meanwhile Albinus prepared for war, but a single battle fought near Lugdunum (Lyons), decided the contest, and Severus was the conqueror. He returned to Rome, where he insulted the senate by pronouncing a laboured eulogy on Commodus, and imitated his wicked example by sentencing to a cruel death the most eminent of the nobility. A war with Parthia recalled the emperor to Asia, and success again crowned his arms. He then undertook an expedition into Britain, and forced the Caledonians to surrender a considerable part of their country. The king of Scotland with whom he is said to have come in contact was the heroic Fingal, the father of the bard Ossian. Severus lost fifty thousand men in this expedition, and the fatigue of these campaigns, and the grief caused by the misconduct of his sons, hastened his death, which took place at Eboracum (York), A.D. 211.

CARACALLA and GETA succeeded their father, as joint emperors; but the former by the murder of his brother obtained the sole power, and proved a detestable tyrant. He was at length assassinated near Edessa, by

MACRINUS, prefect of the prætorian guards (A.D. 217), but his extreme severity at length provoked the resentment of the licentious soldiery, and a conspiracy was formed to place a distant relation of the late emperor on the throne. Macrinus marched against his competitor, but fled from his men the moment that a battle commenced; and the guards, enraged by his cowardice, pursued and slew him (A.D. 218).

HELIOGABALUS, who thus ascended the throne, was a boy of fourteen, and a Syrian priest of the Temple of the Sun at Emesa; notwithstanding which, he was a monster of gluttony, lust, and cruelty. In his eighteenth year he was murdered by the soldiers, and his body thrown into the Tiber (A.D. 222).

His virtuous cousin

ALEXANDER SEVERUS succeeded him. His government was prosperous both at home and abroad. He restored the authority of the senate, purified the administration of justice, and protected the Christians. His reign is memorable for the establishment of the Second Persian empire. It will be remembered that Persia fell under the dominion of the Seleucidæ, and that frequent revolutions took place till the time when Syria was swallowed up in the Roman empire. At that time Persia was in the hands of the Parthians, whose independence of Rome is well known, and whose kingdom extended from India to the frontiers of Syria. Artabanus, the last of a long line of Parthian kings, had in his service Ardshir, or Artaxerxes, a bold Persian soldier, who stirred up his countrymen to revolt, slew Artabanus, and established a new Persian dynasty, called the Sassanidæ, from Sassan,

one of the ancestors of Artaxerxes. He demanded from the Romans the restitution of all the countries which had belonged to the great Cyrus, which proud demand was answered by the Roman legions, whom Alexander Severus led into the East. On the whole, Artaxerxes had the advantage, though the young emperor, on his return, claimed a triumph. Soon after this he led his army into Northern Gaul, to protect that province from the Germans. He found the legions there demoralized by a long course of indulgence, and he immediately exerted himself to restore the ancient discipline. The licentious soldiers could not endure the change, and their discontents were fomented by Maximin, a Thracian peasant, who had risen to high command by his uncommon strength and valour. The emperor was assassinated, and

MAXIMIN was proclaimed (A.D. 235). His government was cruel and tyrannical, and he was slain, in a mutiny of his soldiers, in the third year of his reign. He was succeeded by

GORDIAN (A.D. 238), formerly proconsul of Africa, who was victorious against Sapor, the Persian monarch, forcing him to abandon Mesopotamia. It was on this occasion that the Temple of Janus was opened for the last time. The same fate awaited Gordian as that of so many of his predecessors. He was murdered at the instigation of a man whom he had made prefect of the prætorians (A.D. 244).

PHILIP THE ARAB. His reign was rendered remarkable by the celebration of secular games for the thousandth anniversary of the foundation of Rome (A.D. 247). He was slain in battle against



DECIVS, who had been induced by the soldiers to assume the purple (A.D. 249). He commenced his reign by one of the most sanguinary persecutions which ever oppressed the Church. It was interrupted by an invasion of the Goths, who crossed the Danube, and devastated Mœsia. Decius marched against them, and fell in battle (A.D. 251).

One of his commanders,

GALLUS, was proclaimed emperor, but his conduct provoked general resentment, and an insurrection broke out. He was murdered by his own soldiers, who proclaimed

ÆMILIANUS (A.D. 253), who in three months met a similar fate, the army having chosen

VALERIAN, the governor of Gaul, to the sovereignty. The empire was now in a deplorable state, attacked on every side by the Goths and other surrounding nations. Valerian possessed powers which might have revived its sinking fortunes, but passing into the East, he was surrounded near Edessa by Sapor's army, and forced to surrender at discretion (A.D. 259). For nine years he languished in hopeless captivity, the object of scorn and insult to his brutal conqueror, while no effort was made for his liberation by his son

GALLIENUS, a contemptible prince. So much was the distracted state of the empire increased by the hatred with which he was regarded, that at one time no less than nineteen individuals revolted in different provinces, and made pretensions to the crown. The most remarkable of these was ODENATUS, who assumed the purple at Palmyra, gained several great victories over the Persians, and checked the progress of the

SASSANIDÆ. Gallienus hearing of these great achievements, resolved to convert a rival into a friend, and proclaimed Odenatus his partner in the empire. But this great man was murdered by some of his own family, and succeeded by his wife, the celebrated Zenobia, who took the title of Queen of the East. Gallienus did not long survive him, being murdered by Martian, one of his generals.

CLAUDIUS II., a general of great reputation, succeeded him (A.D. 268), and by his vigour and activity somewhat retrieved the affairs of the empire; but a pestilence broke out in the army, and the emperor himself was one of its victims (A.D. 270). The army chose as his successor

AURELIAN, the ablest commander of his time. Having secured the tranquillity of Europe, he marched into the East to withstand Zenobia. He encountered her forces near Antioch, and obliged her to retire within the strong walls of Palmyra. Thither she was pursued by Aurelian, who offered her an honourable retreat, and the citizens all their former privileges, on condition of an immediate surrender. But Zenobia proudly refused, and defended her capital with spirit and resolution. At length, finding that there was no hope, she attempted secretly to fly into Persia, but was betrayed by her servants, and taken prisoner. Palmyra surrendered, and Aurelian withdrew from the city, leaving in it a garrison of only six hundred men. But not long after, the citizens revolted, and massacred the Roman garrison, upon which he turned back, put the inhabitants to the sword, and thus the trade of this great commercial capital was irretrievably

ruined. The pomp of Aurelian's triumph could scarcely be exceeded. Zenobia walked in golden fetters, and her wardrobe was spread before the gazing multitudes. After this humiliation the emperor gave her a beautiful villa at Tivoli, where she lived in ease and luxury till her death. Aurelian's virtues were sullied by his severity, which eventually was the cause of his death. His secretary, who had been threatened with punishment for an act of peculation, conspired against his master, and slew him (A.D. 275). After a tranquil interregnum, the senate elected

TACITUS, an old man, who died in six months, when

PROBUS (A.D. 276) became the choice of the army. Having subdued almost all the enemies of Rome, he resolved to employ his armies in useful public works. This so offended his licentious soldiery, that they suddenly attacked and slew him (A.D. 282).

CARUS, the prefect of the prætorian guards, was elected emperor, but died after a short reign.

DIOCLETIAN (A.D. 284), who next assumed the government, had a long and prosperous reign; but it was "the era of martyrs," for the Christians suffered their last great persecution, which exceeded all the former in severity. The troubles of the empire appearing too great to be managed by a single mind, Diocletian voluntarily gave himself a colleague in

MAXIMIAN, an ignorant and ferocious barbarian, though a brave and skilful soldier. Each of them chose an associate and successor, who was to be invested with a considerable share of imperial power. Diocletian chose GALERIUS, and Maximian CONSTANTIUS CHLORUS. A division of the empire followed, which may be thus stated:—

DIOCLETIAN ruled the provinces beyond the Ægean Sea.

GALERIUS, Thrace and Illyricum.

MAXIMIAN, Italy and Africa.

CONSTANTIUS, Gaul, Spain, and Britain.

This arrangement undoubtedly hastened the decline of the empire. Four courts, with all their expensive adjuncts, had to be maintained, instead of one; taxes were multiplied, and the inhabitants of several provinces reduced to beggary.

Brilliant victories followed, especially in the East, and Rome witnessed for the last time the splendid ceremonial of a triumph. Soon after this, Diocletian and Maximian astonished the world by resigning the empire; and by their abdication Constantius and Galerius were raised to the rank of emperors, and selected SEVERUS and MAXIMIN as coadjutors.

Constantius died fifteen months after the abdication of Diocletian, and his celebrated son Constantine was proclaimed by the army of the West; but Galerius would only give him the title of Cæsar. Each of the so-called emperors chose coadjutors, and thus the empire came at last to be shared by six sovereigns. We may pass over their obscure and unimportant joint reigns, and proceed to the time when

CONSTANTINE THE GREAT became master of Rome (A.D. 312).

It is said, that during one of his campaigns he saw a miraculous vision of a luminous cross in the heavens, and over it an inscription: "In this overcome." He consequently ceased to persecute the Christians; but we cannot call him a really Christian emperor, though

he was so nominally, and established the Christian religion throughout his dominions. To get rid of his last rival, he put Licinius, one of the remaining Augusti, to death, and thus obtained his desire of becoming sole head of the Roman empire (A.D. 324). Instigated by the empress Fausta he also murdered his own son Crispus, and when he too late discovered his mistake, he caused Fausta herself to be slain. These horrors aggravated the unpopularity which he had already acquired at Rome, by abandoning the religion of his forefathers; but Constantine cared not for the displeasure of the Roman populace, having finally resolved to give a new capital to the empire. A metropolis on the confines of Europe and Asia was recommended by the political advantages of its central situation, and the opportunities it afforded for reviving the lucrative commerce of the Euxine, and the Eastern Mediterranean. Enormous sums were expended by Constantine in embellishing his new capital of Byzantium; and in the decline of his life he appears to have adopted much of the pomp and luxury characteristic of Asiatic despots. His rule became grinding and severe; the people were weighed down by excessive taxation, and the military defence of the empire was left to the young Cæsars, whose mismanagement increased the miseries of their subjects. Constantine died A.D. 335. It was not until after his death that Byzantium took the name of Constantinople.

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## HISTORY OF THE JEWS.

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### PERIOD VIII.

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WE have seen that at the time of our Lord's birth

HEROD THE GREAT was king of Judea. He was a wretched tyrant, and did not long survive the murder of the Innocents. He had married ten wives, and his children were numerous; but

ARCHELAUS, HEROD ANTIPAS, and PHILIP were alone named in his will as his successors. They quarrelled so seriously, that they were summoned to Rome to take their trial before Augustus. By his decree Archelaus received the sovereignty of Judea, Samaria, and Idumea with the title of ethnarch, being promised that of king if his conduct should deserve it. Galilee and Perea were given to Herod Antipas, with the title of tetrarch, and Philip received Trachonites and Itruria, with the same title. Archelaus was a vicious character; he oppressed the Jews, and acted with so much injustice and cruelty, that an appeal was made to Augustus, who, convinced of the truth of the charges brought against him, banished him to Vienne, and gladly availed himself of this opportunity to include Judea among the provinces of the Roman empire (A.D. 10).

The first procurator or governor of Judea was

Coponius, a Roman knight; and Quirinius (called Cyrenius, Luke ii. 2) was at the same time appointed prefect of Syria, and charged to collect the taxes from the Jewish people, who had been registered for this purpose some years before.

Ambivius and Rufus quickly followed Coponius, and Gratus was appointed shortly before the death of Augustus. Nothing is recorded of his rule, except the frequent change of the high priests, for they were appointed or removed according to the pleasure of the Roman governor.

It was in A.D. 27 that Tiberius appointed PONTIUS PILATE as the successor of Gratus, and in A.D. 30 John the Baptist entered on his remarkable ministry. What little power remained to the Jews was lodged in the hands of the General Council, or Sanhedrim, frequently referred to in the Gospels, as the "chief priests, scribes, and elders of the people."

It was, in fact, the voice of the nation, professing to express the mind of the people to their foreign rulers. By this body our Lord was condemned; and Pilate, though convinced of his innocence, gave sentence that he should be crucified (A.D. 33).

Philip the Tetrarch died in the same year, and as he left no heir, his territory was for a time added to the prefecture of Syria. But when Caligula became emperor, it was bestowed on

HEROD AGRIPPA I., grandson of Herod the Great, with the title of king. On Agrippa's appearance in his own country in royal pomp, Herod Antipas was jealous, and set out for Rome to ask for a similar title. But Herod Agrippa sent the emperor private informa-

tion of his seditious motives, and he was sentenced to banishment, and his dominions added to those of his rival.

Pontius Pilate, meanwhile, having been accused of tyranny and misgovernment, was tried, and condemned to death, but killed himself to avoid execution.

The dominions of Herod Agrippa were still further increased by Claudius, and thus the whole of Judea was again under one king. To please the Jews, Herod beheaded St. James the Great, and attempted the life of St. Peter (Acts xii.). He then went to reside at Cæsarea, which was the scene of his terrible death (A.D. 44). Claudius decided that the younger Agrippa (his son) was too young to reign, and thus Judea again fell into the condition of a Roman province. In A.D. 50, however, Claudius gave him the kingdom of Chalcis, which had belonged to his uncle. The cruelty and rapacity of the provincial governors filled the land with wretchedness, which was aggravated under the administration of FELIX, whose avarice was unbounded. He united with some of the most daring of the armed robbers who wasted the country, on condition of sharing their spoils; and when Jonathan the high priest remonstrated with him, he hired some of the Sicarii, the worst of the Galilean zealots, to murder him in the Temple. Before this wicked governor St. Paul was brought, when falsely accused by the Jews of disturbing the public peace. As nothing could be proved against him, Felix detained him in custody; and when in A.D. 62 Felix was recalled, Paul was still bound.

FESTUS, the next governor, bore the character of an



upright, but rather severe man. The Apostle, having little confidence in his firmness, appealed to Cæsar, and was sent to Rome.

Festus died soon after his appointment, and was succeeded by Albinus, who was more rapacious and unjust than any former governor. He enriched himself by loading the people with burdensome taxes. Agrippa II., seeing that danger was at hand, withdrew to Berytus, and made that city the most splendid in his kingdom. Albinus was displaced by Florus, the last and worst governor the Jews ever had (A.D. 64). Like his master Nero, he was crafty, shameless, and cruel. He resolved to drive the Jews into open rebellion, to prevent any enquiry into his manifold oppressions. In one day he destroyed three thousand six hundred unoffending citizens, and even those who could plead the rights of Roman citizens did not escape.

Agrippa entreated the Jews not to bring upon themselves the horrors of war, by a mad revolt against the masters of the world; but they would not listen, and he made no further effort to save them from ruin. The city was soon divided into two parties, the strongest of which was headed by Eleazar, who voted for war at any price; while the peace party implored the help of Agrippa, who sent three thousand horsemen to preserve the Temple. Florus refused to interfere, and watched with delight the progress of the mischief.

Vespasian was appointed by Nero to conduct the war against the Jews, and early in A.D. 67 he and his son Titus came into Galilee, where Josephus was then

governor. Agrippa had joined Vespasian at Antioch, and thus the Jewish people were without a head. Had their generals, however, been firmly united in their purposes, there might have been some prospect of freedom; but they were jealous of each other. John, one of the Galilean commanders, who defended his own stronghold of Gischala, continually opposed Josephus, who had shut himself up in the fortified city of Jotapata. This place was the first to resist the Roman army, and held out for forty-seven days, at the end of which time it was taken. Josephus turned traitor, and went over to the enemy, becoming the steady friend of Vespasian, who proceeded to demolish other cities of Galilee.

John of Gischala escaped to Jerusalem, and headed the party of the zealots in that city, occupying the outer court of the Temple, while Eleazar garrisoned the inner. At length Titus approached the walls, and in vain urged the Jews to surrender. They fought desperately to the last, and held out until famine slew more than the sword. At length the Roman legions triumphed, and the Temple was burnt to the ground. The number of prisoners amounted to ninety-seven thousand, eleven thousand of whom were starved to death by the neglect or cupidity of their keepers. Titus ordered that the entire city should be razed to the ground, with the exception of the three towers Phasaelis, Mariamne, and Hippicus, which he left as memorials of his conquest.

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## HISTORY OF THE CHRISTIAN CHURCH.

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PERIOD VIII.

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THE history of the formation and progress of the Christian Church for thirty years after the ascension of our Lord may be gathered from the Acts of the Apostles, and the Apostolical Epistles. Nero was the first Roman emperor who subjected the Christians to barbarous persecution. Some were crucified in his own gardens: others, covered with the skins of wild beasts, were torn to pieces by dogs. Some were covered with wax, or other combustible materials, and were used as torches to give light to the spectators who attended the public entertainments given by the emperor. St. Peter and St. Paul both suffered at this time (A.D. 66), after which an interval of thirty years' rest to the Church gave time and opportunity for the spread of the Gospel.

In A.D. 95, during the reign of Domitian, the Christians again became the objects of imperial persecution; and it was at this time that the Apostle John was banished to Patmos.

In A.D. 107 Trajan pursued the same policy, and one of his victims was IGNATIUS, bishop of Antioch, who was exposed to wild beasts in the amphitheatre at Rome.

Hadrian was more merciful, and Antoninus Pius appears also to have sheltered the Christians.

About the middle of the second century the heresy known as Gnosticism reached its height. Its followers asserted that the body of our Lord was not human, but a mere phantom, and therefore not really nailed to the cross, thus destroying the doctrine of the atonement. One of the most celebrated of their leaders was MARCION, a native of Pontus, who had been expelled from the church by his own father, a Christian bishop. During the reign of Marcus Aurelius another violent persecution broke out. It was argued that the extinction of Christianity would appease the wrath of the gods, who had shewn their dislike to the new religion by an alarming succession of earthquakes. It was at this time that Justin "Martyr" wrote his celebrated apology, and soon after laid down his life for his Master. He was first scourged, and then beheaded (A.D. 165). The churches of Greece did not escape; and Publius, bishop of Athens, also suffered martyrdom. The aged POLYCARP was burnt to death in the amphitheatre of Smyrna, the Jews assisting the heathen in their cruel work (A.D. 167).

The MONTANISTS, another class of heretics, took their rise at this time. Their founder Montanus, led away by a fanciful and heated imagination, pretended to inspiration; and persuaded two ladies of rank, Priscilla and Maximilia, to leave their husbands, and follow him about as prophetesses.

In A.D. 177 the churches of Lyons and Vienne witnessed a cruel persecution of the Christians, and

the venerable Pothinus, bishop of Lyons, was one of the victims. Irenæus was at this time a presbyter in the church of Lyons, and had enjoyed the advantage, when very young, of receiving instruction from Polycarp. His absence from Rome at this juncture probably saved his life; and he became celebrated as the author of a work in which Gnosticism was exposed and confuted, and succeeded Pothinus as bishop of Lyons.

During the latter part of this century the Gospel made rapid progress in Alexandria, where Clement was labouring; but he was forced to seek safety in flight from the violence of his heathen adversaries. It was at this time that Theodotus, a Byzantine Christian, founded the heresy which denied the divinity of Christ; while Praxeas became the leader of a sect which denied that the Son and the Holy Ghost were distinct persons. He found a powerful opponent in TERTULLIAN, a presbyter in the church of Carthage, and one of the most learned men of the time.

After the death of Severus, the Church enjoyed a season of comparative repose; and Mammea, the aunt of Heliogabalus, even sent an escort of soldiers to Origen, requesting him to come and discourse with her on matters of religion. Her son Alexander Severus seems to have been favorably inclined towards the Christians, and persecution ceased. Origen took up his abode at Cæsarea, and there wrote his laborious commentaries on the Scriptures. But no sooner was Alexander Severus dead, than Maximin decreed an attack upon the Christians, and the work of slaughter was revived in all its former activity. The reign of

Gordian, however, was one of tranquillity to them, and his successor, Philip, also favored their doctrines ; but a season of suffering was coming on which had not been experienced since A.D. 202.

Decius, in A.D. 250, issued an edict by which the Christians were to be compelled to sacrifice to the gods. Origen was imprisoned ; Alexander, bishop of Jerusalem, shared the same fate ; Fabian, bishop of Rome, was put to death ; and many sought refuge in caves and desert places. Some of these never returned again to their former habits of life, and the monastic idea may perhaps be traced to this beginning. One of the fugitives, named Paul, has acquired the celebrity of being the first hermit. An account of the Decian persecution is to be found in the writings of Cyprian, bishop of Carthage, who flourished at this time. Under Valerian he was banished to Cambis, about fifty miles from Carthage, but the following year suffered martyrdom (A.D. 258).

From the accession of Gallienus we may date the commencement of another period of peace to the Church ; but it was marked by the growth of religious dissensions among the Christians themselves. About this time the doctrines known by the name of Manichean began to spread themselves in Europe. They were first disseminated in Persia by Manes, or Mani, a native of that country, who mixed up with Christianity some of his national superstitions, and taught that there were two eternal beings—one, the god of the principle of good, the other, of evil.

In A.D. 302 began that last and most dreadful imperial persecution which the Church had yet encountered. An edict was issued by Diocletian, directing

that the Christian churches should be pulled down, their books burnt, and themselves tortured and killed. Fire, boiling water, wild beasts, starvation, and crucifixion, were all resorted to by turns; and it is said that the executioners were fatigued, and their weapons blunted, while the faith and patience of the Christians held out. But better times were at hand. Constantine the Great issued an edict which allowed to every person and sect the free exercise of their own religion. He himself nominally embraced Christianity, and entire toleration became the law of the empire.

The rise of the Arian heresy (A.D. 314), and its adoption by men of learning, such as Eusebius, bishop of Nicomedia, led to the convening of a General Assembly. It was held at Nice, in Bithynia, and attended by three hundred and eighteen bishops, twenty-two of whom were supporters of Arius, who taught the inferiority of our Lord to the Father. Constantine himself was present at all the meetings. The opinions of Arius were condemned, and a confession of faith, the groundwork of that called the **NICENE CREED**, was drawn up.

Helena, the mother of Constantine, caused a number of magnificent churches to be built throughout the empire—one, especially, at Jerusalem (*Ælia*), over the supposed site of the Lord's sepulchre. Outwardly all was well with the Christian Church; but the sunshine of worldly prosperity is not favorable to the growth of true religion. The faith and love which had enabled so many to lay down their lives for Christ's sake now grew cold; and from the time when Christianity mounted the throne of the Cæsars may be dated its corruption and degeneracy.

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## HISTORY OF PERSIA.

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### PERIOD VIII.

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IN A.D. 226 an important revolution occurred in Asia, which exercised a fatal influence upon the declining empire of Rome. The formidable power of the Parthians, which spread from Media to the frontiers of Syria, was subverted by

ARDSHIR or ARTAXERXES, the founder of a dynasty, which under the name of SASSANIDÆ governed Persia till the invasion of the Arabs. Artaxerxes had served with great reputation in the armies of Artabanus, the last king of the Parthians. He claimed to be descended from a branch of the ancient kings of Persia, and driven into rebellion by royal ingratitude, asserted his right to the throne, defeated the Parthians in three battles, and slew their king. His authority was then solemnly acknowledged in a great national assembly. He restored the Magian religion in its ancient splendour, and subdued the Scythians and Indians. But his ambition prompted him to aim at a far more universal dominion. He claimed all the lands which had belonged to the great Cyrus, and sent an embassy to Alexander Severus, commanding the Romans to quit their Eastern possessions. A war was inevitable; but Artaxerxes found himself unable to wrest from



western hands even the little province of Mesopotamia. He bequeathed his new empire to

SAPOR, who first rendered Armenia tributary, and then moved against the Roman army, which, under Valerian, was marching to the defence of the East. The eastern and western belligerents met near the walls of Edessa, and Valerian was vanquished and taken prisoner by Sapor, who then marched on, through Antioch to Cappadocia, carrying devastation everywhere. (Valerian, after being treated with the utmost indignity, sank under the weight of shame and grief.) His further progress was checked by Odenatus and Zenobia, who drove him back beyond the Euphrates, and founded the empire of Palmyra. In his reign lived the celebrated Manes, the founder of the Manichæans, who endeavoured to amalgamate the Christian and Zoroastrian religions. Sapor was succeeded by

HORMUZ, and several kings of lesser note followed. In A.D. 294

NARSES succeeded, and carried on a formidable war against Diocletian, who regained Mesopotamia, five small provinces beyond the Tigris, and the kingdom of Armenia. During the time of his grandson SAPOR II., victory again declared for Persia. (See next Period.)

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## PERIOD IX.

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*Began with the Building of Constantinople A.D. 330.  
Ended with the Downfall of the Roman Empire  
A.D. 476.*

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## HISTORY OF ROME.

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### PERIOD IX.

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ON the death of Constantine, a new division of the empire was made by his sons.

CONSTANTINE II., the eldest, took possession of the Capital.

CONSTANTIUS received Thrace and the Asiatic provinces, while

CONSTANS was destined to rule the western provinces.

Scarcely had this arrangement been completed, when Constantius was forced to take the field, in order to check the progress of Sapor II., king of Persia. Nine indecisive engagements were fought, but at length the Romans were defeated, through their own imprudence, on the plains of Singara, not far from the ruins of Nineveh (A.D. 348). Sapor, encouraged by this victory, laid siege to Nisibis, but after he had

lost more than twenty thousand men before the walls, he was forced to relinquish the enterprise, and make peace with Constantius.

Civil war was next kindled through the ambition of Constantine, who invaded the dominions of his brother Constans, but fell into an ambuscade, and was slain (A.D. 340). During ten years Constans remained master of two-thirds of the empire, which he plundered by his rapacity, and disgraced by his vices. A conspiracy was formed against him, and he came to an untimely end (A.D. 350). Constantius died A.D. 361, and

JULIAN, his cousin, was unanimously greeted emperor. He forsook Christianity for Paganism, and thus gained the title of THE APOSTATE. The most remarkable of his enterprises for the overthrow of the Christian religion was an attempt to rebuild the Temple of Jerusalem. It was defeated; balls of fire bursting from the earth rendered the place inaccessible to the scorched and blasted workmen employed to dig the foundations.

It cannot be denied that Julian was an extraordinary man, and did much that was beneficial to his subjects. He was mortally wounded in a skirmish with the Persians, and died A.D. 363.

JOVIAN, the chief of the domestics, was saluted Augustus by the army; and his first care was to conclude a dishonorable peace with the Persians, resigning to Sapor not only the five provinces beyond the Tigris, but the whole of Mesopotamia, including the fortified cities of Nisibis and Singara. He restored the Christian religion to its ancient supremacy, but

wisely proclaimed universal toleration. He was found dead in his bed, from sleeping in a damp room which had been heated with charcoal (A.D. 364); and

VALENTINIAN was chosen as his successor. He divided his dominions with his brother

VALENS, to whom he assigned the eastern provinces, while he made Milan the seat of his own government.

In his reign the piracies of the Saxons in the Northern Seas first began to attract attention. Britain also would have been lost to the empire, but for the heroic exertions of Theodosius, an able commander, who next subdued an insurrection in Africa. Two years afterwards this great general was ignominiously beheaded at Carthage, on a vague suspicion that he was aiming at the imperial diadem. Valentinian died suddenly from the effects of violent passion (A.D. 375); and Valens was slain in the battle of Adrianople, against the Goths, who had approached the walls of Constantinople, and destroyed its suburbs (A.D. 378).

Valentinian I. was succeeded, in the West, by his son

GRATIAN, who chose as his associate

THEODOSIUS, afterwards named The Great, son of the celebrated general so unjustly put to death. He defeated the Goths in the field, but won their affections by his justice and moderation. He summoned a general council at Constantinople (A.D. 381) to check the progress of heresy, and dictated a solemn edict which proclaimed the doctrine of the Trinity. While he was thus engaged, Maximus, the governor of Britain, revolted against Gratian, and was joined by

the whole of the Western legions. The emperor being himself abandoned by his troops fled towards Italy, but was overtaken at Lugdunum, and put to death (A.D. 388). Maximus might have ruled the Western provinces in peace and prosperity, for his claim was acknowledged by Theodosius, but nothing could restrain his boundless ambition, and he soon meditated depriving VALENTINIAN II., the brother of Gratian of Italy, where he had nominally been reigning since A.D. 375 (aged four); the latter, unable to defend his territories, fled to Theodosius, who instantly marched against Maximus. The usurper was defeated, arrested by his own soldiers, and brought in chains to Theodosius, who considered his execution necessary to the safety of the state (A.D. 388). The young Valentinian II. did not long retain his throne. He was murdered by a Frank, who conferred the Western empire on one of the royal secretaries, named Eugenius, whom he hoped to make the instrument of his ambition. But he was murdered by his own soldiers, and thus (A.D. 392)

THEODOSIUS became master of the whole Roman empire, which was thus once more re-united under a single head. He was, however, well aware that the condition of the Roman dominions in Europe and Asia rendered a partition necessary, and he invited his younger son

HONORIUS to receive the sceptre of the West, appointing

ARCADIUS, the elder, his successor at Constantinople. He did not long survive this arrangement, and his sons ascended the thrones designed for them, but both

abandoned the cares of state to their ministers Rufinus and Stilicho. The former was a monster of iniquity; the latter worthy of his eminent station of master-general of the West.

Rufinus was murdered by the troops shortly afterwards, and Stilicho became the deliverer of Italy. The Goths were at this time headed by the bold Alaric, who entered Macedonia, and carried his ravages into almost every district of Greece. Stilicho marched into Peloponnesus to chastise him; but the ministers of the feeble Arcadius, jealous of Stilicho, formed a treaty with Alaric, and promoted him to the rank of master-general of the Eastern Illyricum. Stilicho returned to Italy, and was soon compelled to defend that peninsula against Alaric, who forced a passage over the Julian Alps, and advanced towards Milan. Honorius fled, and the Goths made a sudden rush towards Rome. The capital was saved by the diligence of Stilicho, but Alaric's departure from Italy was purchased by a large pension. Scarcely had he departed, when Italy was invaded by new hordes of Vandals, Suevi, Burgundians, and Goths, under the command of Radagaisus. Once more Stilicho saved his country; he allowed the barbarians to lay siege to Florence, which was well garrisoned and provisioned; then securing all the passes, he blockaded them in their turn, and reduced them to such distress that they surrendered at discretion (A.D. 406).

Radagaisus was put to death, but some of the hordes fell back upon Gaul, and laid waste that province from the Rhine to the Pyrenees. Stilicho was treacherously murdered by his unworthy master, and

the wretched Olympus was appointed premier in his stead.

His first measure was to order a promiscuous massacre of the families of the barbarians throughout Italy. The edict was too well obeyed, and thirty thousand of the bravest soldiers in the Roman pay invited Alaric to head them in avenging the slaughter of their wives and children. Alaric obeyed the summons, and marched directly against Rome, which he closely besieged. The emperor made no effort to relieve it, and the senate at length purchased temporary safety by paying an enormous ransom. Alaric led his forces into Tuscany, and was joined on his march by forty thousand Goths and Germans. Honorius refused to treat, and once more Alaric marched against the imperial city (A.D. 410), which became the prey of the barbarians. On the sixth day after its capture he evacuated the place, and took the road for Southern Italy. He was preparing to invade Sicily when he died, and his brother Adolphus concluded a peace with the empire. He was ultimately murdered; but his successor Wallia established the supremacy of the Visigoths in Spain, and the east of Gaul. It was about the same time that the Franks, Burgundians, and other barbarous tribes established themselves in Gaul.

In the meantime the reign of Arcadius in the East was dishonored by the profligate administration of Eutropius and the empress Eudoxia, to whose cruelty St. Chrysostom was a victim.

After his death

THEODOSIUS II. (A.D. 408) succeeded to the eastern

empire, but the administration was usurped by his sister Pulcheria, who ruled with energy and ability for more than forty years. Theodosius was a mere cipher. In the year 423 Honorius died, and his nephew

VALENTINIAN III., after some opposition, was proclaimed Emperor of the West; but being only six years of age, his mother Placidia was guardian of the Western empire, and thus two women wielded the destinies of the civilized world. Military spirit was fast decaying, but the two generals who commanded the armies of Placidia are worthy to be named the last of the Romans. These were Aetius and Boniface. Their union might have supported a sinking empire, their discord was the fatal cause of the loss of Africa. Boniface was recalled from the latter country through the crafty counsels of Aetius, who at the same time advised him to disobey. Boniface, thus deceived, invited Genseric, king of the Vandals, to come to his aid. Afterwards finding that he had been duped, he returned to his allegiance, but it was too late. He was defeated by Genseric, and returned to Italy, where he was murdered by his rival, who was proclaimed a rebel by Placidia, and obliged to take refuge among the Huns, who were now becoming the terror of the world, under their great leader Attila—"the Scourge of God;" the latter extorted vast sums, as the price of his forbearance, from the Eastern empire. On the death of Theodosius II. (A.D. 450) he threatened war against

MARCIAN, his successor, the nominal husband of Pulcheria, but the victories of Aetius (now restored to favor) over the Franks and Vandals, induced the fierce



barbarian to turn his arms against the Western empire. There Aetius, aided by the Visigoths, again drove him from the frontier, and the Huns then poured like a torrent into Italy, and laid waste the peninsula. The death of Attila delayed the utter ruin of the empire, but the murder of Aetius by the ungrateful Valentinian III., and the unchecked ravages of the barbarians, rendered all the provinces miserable. Valentinian himself was murdered by the patrician

MAXIMUS (A.D. 455). He had scarcely been three months upon the throne when the fleet of the Vandals appeared in the Tiber. His subjects, attributing this new calamity to his supineness, stoned him to death; but before a successor could be chosen, Genseric marched his soldiers into the defenceless city, and pillaged everything that had been spared by the piety or mercy of Alaric. The next Roman emperor was appointed by the Visigoths—a Gaul of noble family—

AVITUS (A.D. 455). The formal consent of Marcian, emperor of the East, was obtained; but the Gallic emperor did not long enjoy the purple. He was deposed by Count Ricimer, grandson of Wallia, and did not long survive.

MAJORIAN (A.D. 457) was elevated to the throne, and made vigorous efforts to remedy the disorders of the state, but he was dethroned by the soldiery, and died A.D. 461. Ricimer then chose one of his own creatures,

LIBIUS SEVERUS (A.D. 461), to be nominal emperor, retaining all real power in his own hands. Severus expired as soon as his life became inconvenient to his master; and Ricimer, unable to protect the coasts of

Italy, appealed to the Eastern emperor to choose a colleague in the West. Marcian had died in the year 457, and been succeeded by

LEO, of Thrace. He nominated

ANTHEMIUS, who also fell a victim to Ricimer, who persuaded

OLYBRIUS to supplant him. He died A.D. 474, and JULIUS NEPOS was nominated by Leo. Scarcely had he settled in Ravenna, when he heard that the barbarian confederates were marching against him, under the command of Orestes. Nepos fled, and Orestes, declining the crown himself, allowed his army to place it on the head of his son

ROMULUS AUGUSTUS (A.D. 475). Latin historians, in derision of his weakness, call him *Augustulus*.

Orestes was a Roman by birth, and the commander of the barbarian mercenaries. One of his former companions, Odoacer, persuaded the soldiery to rise against their former favorite. Orestes was consequently put to death; Augustulus was deposed, and sent into captivity; and the conqueror abolishing the title of emperor, and sending all the imperial ensigns to Constantinople, did in reality usurp the power under the title of King of Italy. Thus Rome fell, and a barbarian mounted the throne of the Cæsars.

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## HISTORY OF THE NORTHERN NATIONS.

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PERIOD IX.

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It is obvious that the nations who were powerful enough to overthrow such an empire as that of Rome must have been no mean antagonists, nor can their history be unimportant.

We should be wrong, however, in supposing that they may all be spoken of under one classification; that a barbarian, whether Hun, Goth, or Frank, was a barbarian, and nothing more. On the contrary, the Goths looked upon the Huns as not far removed from infernal spirits, and we know that the parent homes of these invaders of the West were different. Since we ourselves are the descendants of these barbarians, we are specially interested in the enquiry—Where did they come from? Speaking generally, we may say that the race of Japhet extended from the Caucasian region to the South-east, over the table-land of Iran; to the West, over Asia Minor, as far as Greece, and to the North-west, all round the shores of the Black Sea.

These tribes were the parents of most of those which overspread all Europe, and became masters of Northern India. We speak of this race as the Indo-European, and their languages bear an affinity to one

another. In the early periods of ancient history we meet only with the term Scythian as applied to uncivilized nations; and we know that in the days of Alexander the Great they had a king who offered him his daughter in marriage. The *Celts* belong to the same great family, and we have traced their migrations to Europe. The *Teutons* came in contact with Rome as early as the days of Marius, and the Gallic nations were subdued by Cæsar. During the reign of Tiberius we see the German tribes again powerful, and it required a Drusus to keep them in check. Many of them fled beyond the limits of what we call Germany, and in the fastnesses of the North of Europe multiplied, and grew up in savage independence, and with determined enmity to the Roman name. The German tribes included the Goths, Vandals, Allemani, Lombards, &c., &c.

We trace the Goths in the regions beyond the Baltic, where a remembrance of them still lingers in *Gothland*. Odin was their great lawgiver, and by him they were taught to worship an invisible Odin, the god of war.

They afterwards crossed the Baltic, and emigrated to the coasts of Pomerania; then, later on, they still pushed southwards, and were joined by several other tribes of Teutonic and Slavonic descent, who were proud to fight under their banners. Amala was their hero during the third century, and from him Theodoric was the tenth descendant. The people were divided into two great tribes—the Ostro, or Eastern, and the Visi, or Western Goths. In the days of the emperor Decius we find a Gothic king ravaging Mœsia, and

we know that the emperor and his son both perished in withstanding them. Later on we meet with another confederation of German tribes, calling themselves Franks or Freemen, and yet another called Allemanni (all men). The former overran Gaul and Spain, and crossing the Mediterranean, reached Mauritania, to the astonishment of the Africans. But we must glance at yet another great family who bore an important part in the overthrow of Rome—the Huns—a Turkish race originally located on the north side of the Great Wall of China, but who gradually became the conquerors, and the sovereigns of a formidable empire.

It was to defend the frontiers of China from the inroads of these barbarians that in the third century, before Christ, the wall of fifteen hundred miles was constructed; but they broke through it, and the Chinese emperors were obliged to resort to bribery to free themselves from such troublesome neighbours. When at last they freed themselves from them, the Huns resolved to discover and subdue some remote country, and directed their march towards the Volga. Crossing this river, they invaded the Gothic empire, over which the great Hermanric then ruled (A.D. 367). This aged king died soon afterwards, and his son was slain in battle against the invaders. The Ostrogoths submitted to their fate; but the Visigoths, who were persuaded that the Danube was the only barrier that could save them from the invincible valor of the Huns, implored the emperor Valens to give them permission to cross it, promising to yield obedience to the laws of Rome.

Their prayer was granted, and nearly a million of strangers poured into Thrace. Here they were so shamefully treated by the Roman governor, that they took up arms in self-defence, and thus a nation of enemies was introduced into the heart of the empire. Marching against them, Valens encountered their forces near Hadrianople, and perished in the battle. The Goths having thus no longer any resistance to apprehend from the troops of the East, spread themselves as far as the confines of Italy, and the Adriatic Sea.

During the powerful rule of Theodosius, the Goths made no further advance, but his death was the signal for fresh exploits on the part of their great king ALARIC, who secretly aspired to plant the Gothic standard on the walls of Rome. In the year 402 he crossed the Alps, and appeared under the walls of Milan. A battle ensued near Turin, in which Alaric was defeated, but, nevertheless, he pushed on to Rome. Here peace was purchased from him by Stilicho, the minister of Honorius.

Italy was rejoicing in her deliverance from the Goths, when the Vandals, joined by the Suevi and Burgundians, and all led by RADAGAISUS, laid siege to Florence. But still in vain. He was taken prisoner, and cruelly beheaded, and his followers then crossed the Rhine, and entered Gaul, to ravage and to spoil.

Meantime Alaric was watching for a pretext for renewing the war, and on the death of Stilicho once more pitched his camp under the walls of Rome, and once more was bought off. He then wintered in Tuscany, and the following year (A.D. 409) directed his

efforts against the port of Ostia. After this the sound of the Gothic trumpet was heard in the imperial city, which was delivered to the licentious fury of the tribes of Germany and Scythia (A.D. 410). At the head of an army, encumbered with the rich spoils of the imperial city, Alaric advanced along the Appian Way into the southern provinces of Italy, and death alone defeated his designs on the fair island of Sicily. His brother-in-law ADOLPHUS succeeded to his throne, and turned his victorious arms against Spain. He was assassinated in the year 415, but we see his successors established in the dominion of an extensive empire, and fixing their royal residence at Toulouse. We have already seen how Genseric, king of the Vandals, became master of Northern Africa, and how Attila the Hun, "the Scourge of God," became next the terror of the civilized world.

After studying the lives of the later emperors, we cannot be surprised at the overthrow of the Western empire. Its vital power was gone, its degeneracy was complete, its government had in it all the elements of decay. It was the contest of youth against age, of hope against fear, of vigour against weakness. The clay had begun to mingle with the iron, and "the fulness of time had come" for other nations to sway the destinies of Europe.

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**HISTORY OF THE CHRISTIAN CHURCH.**

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**PERIOD IX.**

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**AT** the time when this period opens

**ATHANASIUS**, who had been banished to Treves for his support of the truth against Arius, was reinstated by Constantine II. in his original office of bishop of Alexandria. In the year 342, however, Eusebius held a council at Antioch, in the presence of Constantius, and Athanasius was again deposed, and commanded to make way for **GREGORY** of Cappadocia.

Athanasius escaped to Rome, but on the death of Gregory, in the year 349, returned once more to Alexandria. Flavian was, at that time, bishop of Antioch, and composed the doxology, "Glory be to the Father, and to the Son, and to the Holy Ghost," in opposition to the Arian one, "Glory be to the Father, by the Son, in the Holy Ghost." Yet once again Athanasius was attacked in Alexandria, and escaped to the monks of the desert. The Arian creed was, for a time, almost universally received.

A fourth time Athanasius returned, and a fourth time was driven from his home, and died in the year 372. Shortly after this event **AMBROSE** became bishop of Milan, and **GREGORY** of Nazianzen was appointed by Theodosius bishop of Constantinople; but unable to endure the contests which at that time distracted and disgraced Christianity, he resigned his sacred



office, and thus had leisure to compose those sacred lyrics which entitle him to be called the first Christian poet.

During his episcopate the second General Council of Constantinople was held (A.D. 381), at which the Nicene Creed was enlarged to its present form.

Contemporary with Ambrose were Martin, bishop of Tours, Basil of Cæsarea, and Hilary of Poitiers, who were all devoted to the true faith, and earnest in their testimony against Arianism. The end of the same century saw the rise of the great orator St. Chrysostom, who became archbishop of Constantinople, and fearlessly reprovèd the empress Eudoxia for her profligacy and vice. For this he was accused to the emperor (Arcadius), arrested, and conducted on board a vessel bound to his destined place of exile. At this the whole city was in a tumult, and within two days he was recalled, the vessels on the Bosphorus being illuminated in honor of his return. But he soon again brought down on him the wrath of the empress, to whom a silver statue was dedicated in front of Santa Sophia, round which the people met to celebrate their sports, to the distraction of the congregation within. St. Chrysostom having ventured to begin a sermon with these words: "Now again Herodias raves and is vexed; again she dances, again she desires John's head in a charger," Eudoxia gratified her resentment by obtaining his deposition, and he was conveyed to a barren spot in Armenia. So great was the respect paid to him even there, that his enemies determined to remove him to the extreme desert of Pityus, on his way to which he sank from fatigue and ill-treatment (A.D. 407).

While these events had been transpiring in the East, the fame of St. Augustine had been spreading over the West. He had been converted through the preaching of Ambrose, who composed the *Te Deum* on the occasion of his baptism. He became bishop of Hippo, and when that city was besieged by the Vandals, refused to leave his people, and died during the siege. He was the great opponent of the errors of the Pelasgians, which at this time threatened to spread over the Western Church. Pelasgius, a British monk, denied original sin, and taught that natural religion sufficed for salvation. As a writer few have equalled St. Augustine, who is regarded as the patron saint of theologians and learned men. Another of the western fathers was St. Jerome, who also flourished in the fourth century, and distinguished himself as an author. St. Patrick also lived at this time, dying in the year 460 in Ireland, of which he may justly be considered the apostle. When the temporal power of Rome received its death-blow, the ecclesiastical power rose, and greatly increased in worldly influence. The bishops of Rome had not yet received the name of Pope, but Leo the Great laid the foundations of the papal dominion, by asking from the emperor Valentinian authority over all the bishops of the West. He also tried to enforce the celibacy of the clergy, and introduced pagan practices hitherto condemned by all Christian bishops, such as the burning of incense, sprinkling of holy water, burning of tapers, &c. In consequence of the rivalry between the patriarchs of Rome and Constantinople, the regulations of the Greek and Latin churches began to differ in many respects.

## HISTORY OF PERSIA.

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PERIOD IX.

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JULIAN, the Apostate, taking Alexander for his model, sought to repeat the story of Arbela; and advancing by the route taken by the younger Cyrus, made himself master of Assyria, but he was entrapped by a Persian emissary among the mountains of Media, and compelled to retreat. Not only were the five provinces of the Tigris restored, but the Persians gained Nisibis and Singara. After three unimportant reigns we come to

YEZDEGERD I. (A.D. 404), who was on friendly terms with the emperor Arcadius, and is said to have been appointed guardian to his infant son and successor, Theodosius the younger.

But these two great powers could not long be at peace, and we find his successor,

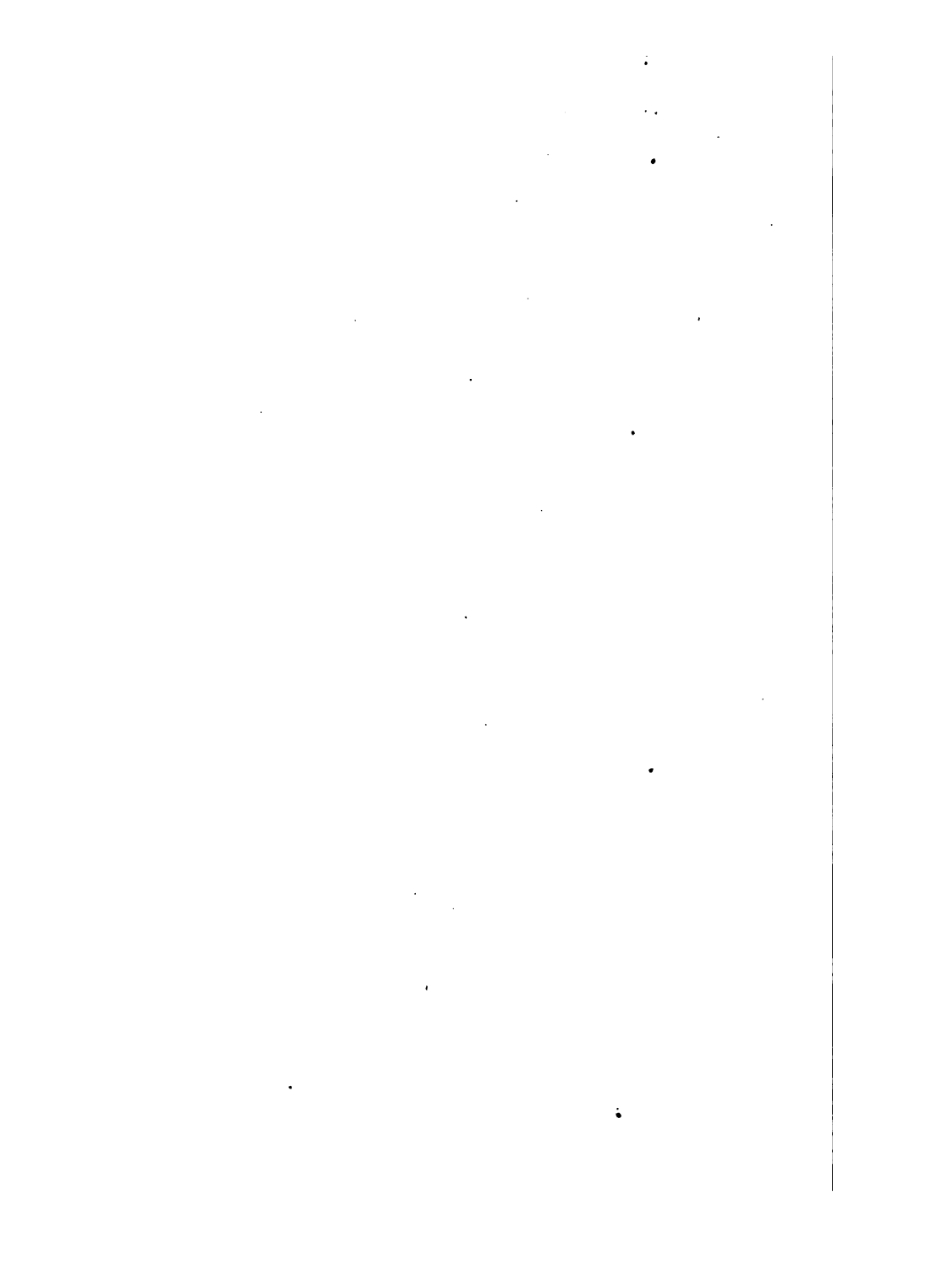
VARANES V. engaged in hostilities with this very emperor. He was accidentally drowned in a deep well.

At the time of the overthrow of the Western Roman empire the Sassanidæ still occupied the throne of Persia.

WE have now given a sketch of the leading events of ancient times, taking up the thread of each country's history during successive Periods. To some it may be helpful to embody this historical sketch in a tabular form, enabling them to see at a glance which great men were contemporaneous, and which events were synchronous. Students do not always realize that Homer was probably the contemporary of Elijah, Isaiah of Romulus, Cyrus of Tarquin, Alexander the Great of Pontius the Samnite, Euclid of Pyrrhus, Judas Maccabeus of Paulus Æmilius, Marius of the last of the Seleucidæ, and our blessed Lord of Livy.

The Tables may therefore be referred to from time to time, in order to make the sketch which precedes them more harmonious and complete.

PERIODS I. AND II. can hardly be given satisfactorily in a tabular form. Of the FIRST there is clearly nothing to tabulate; and the Chronology of the SECOND is so difficult, that only an approach to the truth can be obtained.



	EGYPT	GREECE.	ITALY.
1491			
1451	RAMESSES III.		
1445			The Etruscans
	Series of later Royal History		
1300			
1200	Priest Kings	of the separate States of	Sabellians
1130		ce	
			Ameria built
1100	New Kingdoms	ization of Western part of	
1095	Tanis—a fortress	Minor	
1056			Samnites
1048		(?)	Picenians
1036			
1023			
1015	Alliance of Soudan		
	Egypt		Opican race
1000			
975	SHISHAK		
974	Bubastite dynasty		
	Discord and Division		
957			
955			
954			
953		ic Age (?)	
930			
929			
918			
914			
897			
896			
889			
885		rus (?)	
884	Thirteen petty states		
878			
856			
839	Rival Princes		
838			
825			
810			
784			
776		Olympiad commences	
773			
772			
772			
761			
759			
753			Foundation of R

ROME.

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ROME.	MEDIA & PERSIA.	LYDIA.
may be regarded as the founder of Roman Constitutional, civil, and	ARBACES . . . . .	CANDAULES murdered by Gyges
regulated the laws of property. Instituted the system of Termination of Boundaries. Temple of	Falls under Assyria Shakes off the yoke of DEJOCES	GYGES founds the great dynasty
MESTILIUS subdues Alba, and waged a civil war against the Latins and Sabines	PHRAORTES dies in battle against Assyria	
MARTIUS subdued the Gauls; founded Ostia; the first public road and bridge over the Tiber		
M. PRISCUS the Cloaca Maxima instituted the public games	CYAXARES I. to avenge the death of Phraortes destroys Nineveh	
		ALYATTES. War with Media. Celebrated eclipse of the sun
	ASTYAGES. Marriage of Mandane, his daughter, with Cambyses, king of Persia	
M. ULLIUS formed a union between patricians and plebeians in cities. Admitted the Plebeians to citizenship in the government, and instituted the Census	CYRUS. Media & Persia united in his person	CRÆSUS
	Capture of Babylon	Lydian empire subverted by Cyrus



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	ROME.	EGYPT.
B.C.		
53		
53	TARQUINIUS SUPERBUS . . . . .	
52		Psammenitus overthrown by
52		Cambyses
52		
51		
51		
51		
50	Tarquin expelled by Brutus . . . . .	
49		
49	Consuls. Tribunes . . . . .	
48	War with Volsci. Coriolanus . . . . .	
47	First Agrarian Law . . . . .	
47		
45	Cincinnatus . . . . .	
44	Appointment of Decemviri . . . . .	
43	Laws of Twelve Tables . . . . .	
41	Steady advance of Romans . . . . .	
42		
42		Throws off the yoke under
41		AMYTEUS of Saïs
40		
40	Siege of Veii . . . . .	
390		
378	Rome laid in ashes by the Gauls . . . . .	
371	Camillus . . . . .	
363		
360		
360		Nectanebo II. defeated by Persians
349	Progress of Plebeians . . . . .	
338	First Samnite War . . . . .	
336	Latin War . . . . .	
332	Latania and Campania at the . . . . .	Alexander in Egypt
330	feet of Rome . . . . .	Foundation of Alexandria
330	Manlius . . . . .	
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324	Second Samnite War . . . . .	

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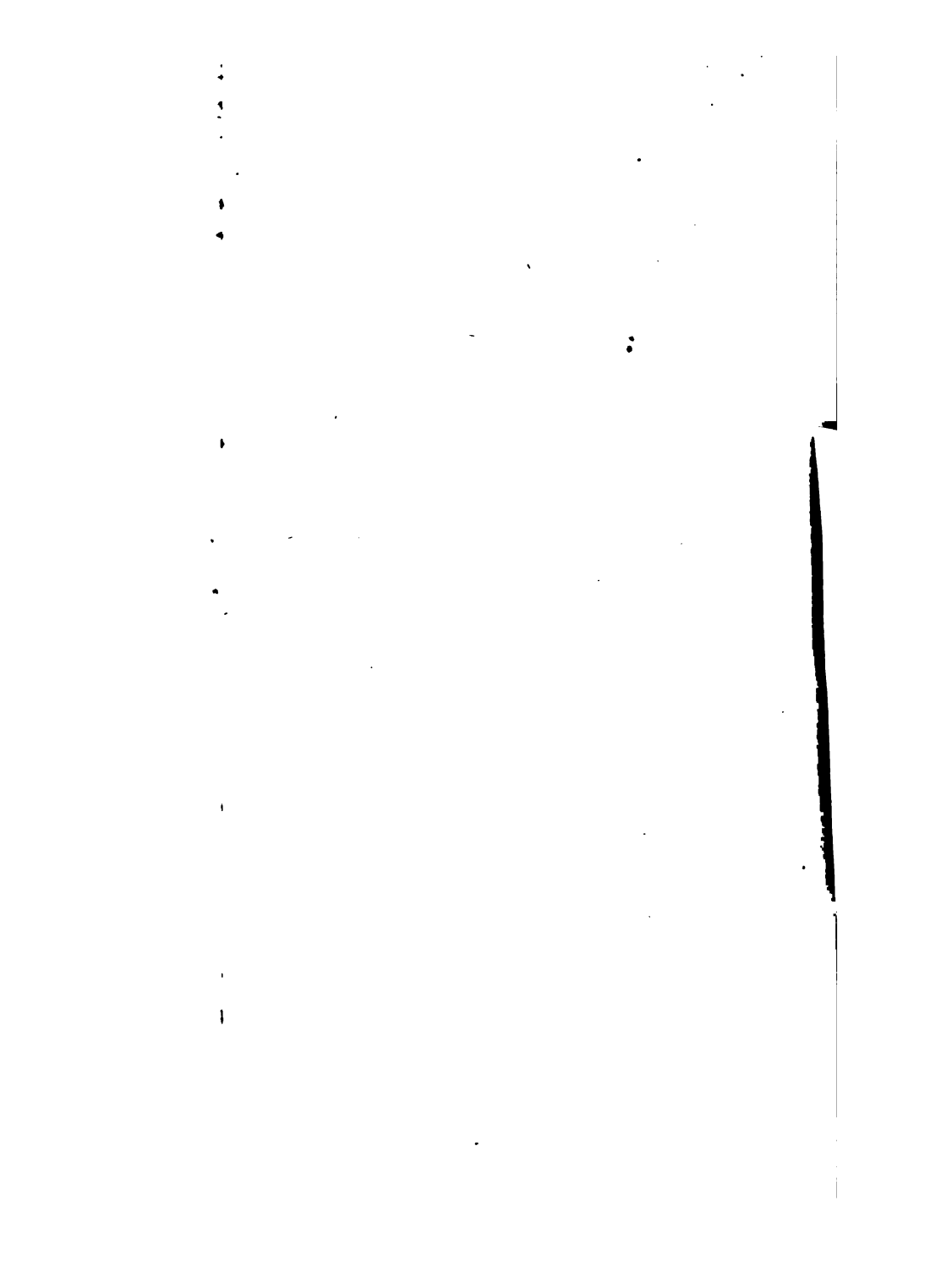
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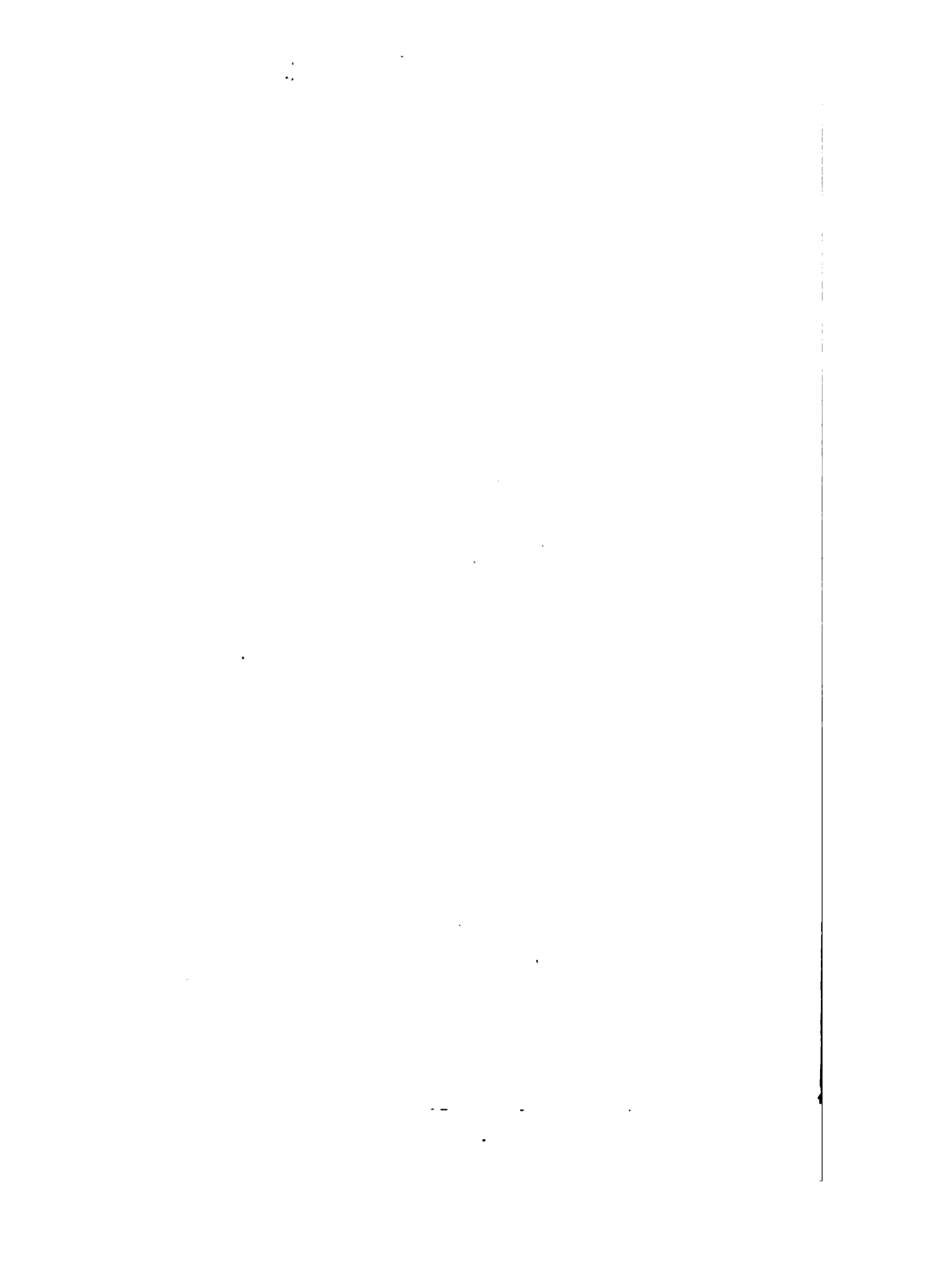
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B.C.		GREECE.	THE JEWS.
323	H	Athens receives a Macedonian garrison. Demetrius liberates Athens. Is banished. Cassander obtains possession of Athens. War with Demetrius. Rebuilds Potidæa and calls it Cassandra	Palestine seized by Ptolemy Lagus or "Soter." Many Jews settle at Alexandria
314			Palestine seized by Antigonus, but it reverts to Ptolemy
311	C		
301	E		SIMON THE JUST
297	P		
295	A		The Hebrew Scriptures translated into Greek
294	D		
287	P		
	D		Palestine the prey alternately of Egypt and Syria
283			
281	E		
280	P	Ætolian and Achæan Leagues	
	F		
278	A		
262	C	ARATUS of Sicyon	
247			
243	D	AGIS IV. attempts to reform Sparta	
	V		
233	A		
226		CLEOMENES wages war in favour of Ætoliens. Is defeated at Sellasia	
224	V		
221	P	Ætoliens supported by Rome against Philip V.	
217		PHILOPÆMEN heads the League	
206		The Achæans and Ætoliens declared free	
204			
200	E		
197	P		
190			
187		Ætolian League subdued	
181		Death of Philopæmen	
179	P	Polybius	
	D		
175			
167	E		Oppression and cruelties of Antiochus Epiphanes
165			JUDAS MACCABÆUS
162			
153			Jonathan High Priest
149			
146		Corinth destroyed by Rome	



		SYRIA.	
B.C.			DEMETRIUS II. (146)
142			ANTIOCHUS VI. (144)
140	Wars in Sp		ANTIOCHUS VII. (139)
136		Conquers	
133	Numantia t	destroys	
	younger.		Seleucus V. (126)
	tumult.		Antiochus VIII. (125)



# HISTORY OF THE MIDDLE AGES.

## INTRODUCTION.

WE have now traced the history of the leading nations, both of the Eastern and Western known world, from the Creation (B.C. 4004) to the Fall of Rome (A.D. 476). It is too common for students to stop here, instead of continuing their historical researches, and enquiring into the fortunes of the barbarian nations who overspread the Roman empire, and whose descendants we are. But without an intelligent acquaintance with the Middle Ages, Modern History, properly so called, is utterly unintelligible, a confused mass, through which no young students could thread their way—the outcome of a period of transition and of change with which they are unacquainted. As soon, therefore, as the outlines of Ancient History have been mastered, let the pupil proceed to analyse the thousand years which intervene before the Fall of Constantinople, an event which synchronises with the Reformation, and roughly



speaking, with the Discovery of America. A foundation will thus be laid upon which may be reared, at any future time, historical enquiries and studies connected with the present nations of Europe, their institutions, influence, and prospects.

The Middle Ages may be thus divided:—

PERIOD } From the Fall of Rome A.D. 476, to the Flight  
I. } of Mahomet (the Hejira) A.D. 622.

PERIOD } From the Hejira A.D. 622, to the Coronation  
II. } of Charlemagne A.D. 800.

PERIOD } From the Coronation of Charlemagne A.D.  
III. } 800, to the first Crusade A.D. 1096.

PERIOD } From the first Crusade A.D. 1096, to Acre  
IV. } taken by the Turks A.D. 1291.

PERIOD } From end of Crusades A.D. 1291, to taking  
V. } of Constantinople by the Turks A.D. 1453.

PERIOD I.  

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*From the Fall of Rome A.D. 476, to the Hejira  
A.D. 622.*

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HISTORY OF ITALY.  

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PERIOD I.  

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ITALY experienced a variety of fortunes after it lost its ancient masters. Odoacer was not unworthy of the high station to which his valor and fortune had raised him; but he was obliged to yield at length to the superior genius of THEODORIC, king of the Ostrogoths, and perished at Ravenna by his sword in the year 493. Italy revived under the wise rule of the victor, who for thirty-three years sheathed his sword, and consecrated his reign to the duties of civil government, his chief adviser being the learned Cassiodorus. He fixed his court at Ravenna, and though an Arian in faith, allowed the Roman Catholics to continue in possession of the power and emoluments of the Church. It was only in his old age that he manifested a spirit of persecution, which embittered his last moments. He died in the year 526, dividing his provinces between his two grandsons, Amalric and Athalaric, who being

of very tender age, their mother Amalasontha became regent and queen of Italy. Both her sons died, and she promoted her cousin Theodatus to the regal title, while she reserved to herself the supreme power. He soon accomplished her assassination (A.D. 535). Justinian, then the Eastern emperor, looked on with an envious satisfaction, and declared war with the assassin. His great general Belisarius achieved the conquest of Italy, and thus for a short time the East and the West were re-united under one sovereign (A.D. 539). After a time the courage of the Goths revived, and Totila, their leader, undertook the restoration of the kingdom. He recovered Rome in the year 546, which was retaken by Belisarius; but it was reserved for Narses, purse-bearer to Justinian, to destroy the Ostrogothic kingdom in Italy. He slew Totila, and occupied Rome (A.D. 552), which was taken and re-taken five times during the reign of Justinian. Teias, last of the barbarian kings, fell at the foot of Vesuvius, and the surviving Ostrogoths were then allowed to leave Italy with part of their wealth. Narses next expelled a horde of Franks and Alemanni who had ravaged Italy from north to south, and was made the first exarch of Ravenna. The last great wave rolled down from the north. Alboin, king of the Lombards, crossed the Alps, and over-ran the fruitful plain which has ever since borne the name of his tribe. He made Pavia his residence, established the feudal system, and settled the principal officers of the army, under the title of dukes, in the chief cities of the provinces. Thus the Lombard kings and the exarchs of Ravenna held Italy between them.

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## HISTORY OF THE PAPACY.

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### PERIOD I.

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THE decay of imperial authority naturally threw the government of Rome more and more into the hands of the bishop and clergy. Their sacred office was respected even by the barbarian. The Roman pastors, otherwise obscure, were not "unwise in their generation:" events fought for them. Under the Arian Ostrogoths they gradually grew into the leading representatives both of the subject race, and of the orthodox faith. The swift succession of barbarian invaders, and the absence from Rome of the Eastern emperor, helped to advance the power and prominence of the Roman bishops. Shaken Christendom leaned more and more upon a Roman centre; benighted Christendom groped more helplessly after a Roman guide. At length in Gregory the Great (A.D. 590—604), the bishopric of the imperial city was held by the foremost man of the age. A new Rome rose from the ashes of the old, destined to prove mightier than the vanished empire; for it claimed dominion over the spirits of men. Gregory, however, by no means solicited or desired the title of universal bishop. His name is deservedly honored as the fourth great father of Latin Christianity; through whose efforts the English began to forsake heathenism, and the Spanish Goths Arianism.

## HISTORY OF THE EASTERN EMPIRE.

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### PERIOD I.

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At the fall of the Western empire

ZENO was ruling at Constantinople. His reign and that of his successor

ANASTASIUS I. (A.D. 491—518) were unimportant. On his death a Dacian peasant,

JUSTIN, was invested with the purple, and being sixty-eight years of age adopted as his colleague his nephew

JUSTINIAN, who shortly became (A.D. 527) sovereign of the East, and married Theodora, a famous actress. His reign is memorable for the building of the new cathedral of St. Sophia, the former ones having been destroyed by fire. Before twenty years had elapsed, an earthquake overthrew the eastern part of the dome, the splendour of which was at once restored by the emperor. Justinian published an edict which imposed a perpetual silence on the schools of Athens, and excited the grief and indignation of the few remaining votaries of Grecian science and superstition. He next formed the design of the conquest of Africa, and entrusted its execution to Belisarius, the first general

of the day, who landed near Carthage, defeated the Vandals, and brought the greater part of their dominions under the sway of Justinian, who was represented by an exarch. Belisarius, after celebrating a triumph, began to threaten the Ostrogoths of Italy. Victory again declared for him. He captured Naples, and then took the capital, Ravenna (A.D. 539). Envy led to the recall of the man who had led captive the successors of Genseric and Theodoric, who had filled Constantinople with the spoils of their palaces, and in six years recovered half the provinces of the Western empire.

Chosroes, king of Persia, had invaded the Roman dominions, and Belisarius soon awed him into retirement. He thus saved the East; but without his presence the recent acquisitions in the West could not be maintained. Italy revolted, and the Goths under Totila defended Pavia, their remaining stronghold, and then marched triumphantly through the land, reducing Naples, and finally Rome. The imperial city was re-taken by Belisarius, and again betrayed to the Goths. It was reserved for Narses, the rival of Belisarius, to overcome Totila, and once more deliver to Justinian the keys of Rome, while he himself became the first and most powerful of the exarchs of Ravenna.

Belisarius once more went forth to war, and distinguished himself by the defeat of the Bulgarians and Slavonians. Then, falsely accused of an attempted conspiracy against his master, he was disgraced and imprisoned.

Justinian's name is further memorable for the code of laws which still command the respect or obedience of the nations of Europe. He died A.D. 565, and was succeeded by his nephew

**JUSTIN II.** His annals are marked with disgrace abroad, and misery at home. The Lombard kings had wrested Italy from the Eastern emperor, and the Persians invaded the Eastern territories. Justin resigned a diadem which to him brought only perplexity and care, and appointed as his successor his faithful general

**TIBERIUS II.** (A.D. 574). Had he lived Constantinople must have rejoiced, but he died in the year 582, having chosen

**MAURITIUS** as his successor. His attempt to restore the discipline of the Roman army was the cause of his death. Constantinople rose in arms, and the lawless city was abandoned to the flames and rapine of a nocturnal tumult.

**PHOCAS**, an obscure centurion, seized the throne and murdered the unfortunate emperor (A.D. 602). He was a worthy rival of Caligula and of Domitian. Every province of the empire was ripe for rebellion; and Heraclius, exarch of Africa, was invited to save his country. He responded to the call, and the African fleet arrived in the Propontis. Phocas was put to death, and

**HERACLIUS I.** mounted the throne (A.D. 610).

The Persians had again advanced during the reign of Phocas and captured Antioch, Cæsarea, and Damascus. Jerusalem itself was taken by assault

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(A.D. 614), and Egypt fell into their hands. At this crisis the "Great king" Chosroes was invited to acknowledge the prophet who had arisen in his midst. He rejected and tore the letter which contained the invitation. "It is thus," exclaimed Mahomet, "that God will tear the kingdom and reject the supplications of Chosroes!" (A.D. 622).

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## HISTORY OF FRANCE.

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PERIOD I.

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At the time of the overthrow of the Western empire, the Franks had overspread the north of Gaul, and founded the Merovingian dynasty.

MEROVÉE himself died in the year 481 at Tournay, his capital, and his son

CLOVIS then succeeded at the age of fifteen. At that epoch he did not possess a single foot of territory within the present boundaries of France. He was literally only the chieftain of about five thousand soldiers; but at twenty years of age, he swept away the last remaining vestige of Roman domination. In the year 493 he married Clotilda, a Burgundian princess, who had been educated in the Catholic faith; and in the year 496 professed himself a Christian, and received baptism in the basilica of Rheims, with three thousand of his warlike subjects. His after-career was one of triumphant conquest. The Armorican states first submitted, and became tributary; then, after a desperate battle near Dijon, the king of Burgundy, being defeated, agreed to hold the position of a vassal. It only remained to conquer the Visigoths, and Clovis made religion a pretext for the enterprise. Their king, Alaric II., met him near Poitiers, but

fell by Clovis' own hand, and his army was irretrievably broken.

Clovis at once took possession of Aquitania, from the Loire to the Garonne, and passed the winter at Bordeaux. In the following spring he pursued his conquests southwards, and captured Toulouse; and would probably have obtained possession of the whole district, but that the powerful Theodoric, the Ostrogoth, dreading the extinction of the Gothic rule north of the Pyrenees, despatched an army to the assistance of the Visigoths, which repulsed the troops of Clovis before Arles. It was thus that the small territory known as Septimania remained to the Visigoths, its capital being Narbonne. The latter years of Clovis were stained by revolting crimes. He put to death by force or treachery all the independent chiefs of various Frankish tribes, many of whom were his own relatives, and thus climbed to the summit of his guilty ambition. In the year 510 he found himself sole monarch of the Franks, but died the following year; and according to the custom of the Germans, his four sons divided his possessions between them, only in such a manner that their dominions were strangely interlaced, and continual discord was the natural consequence. The eldest son was

THIERRY, who took for his share the eastern, or German division, and fixed his capital at Metz. The second,

CHLODOMIR, resided at Orleans.

CHILDEBERT became king of Paris, and

CLOTHAIRE established himself at Soissons.

The three latter, at the instigation of their mother

Clotilda, undertook an expedition against Burgundy. In this campaign Chlodimir was killed, and the surviving brothers resolved on the murder of his three infant sons. Clothaire put to death two of them with his own hands, and was about to destroy the third when his attendants rushed in and rescued him. He renounced his regal inheritance, and died a priest. His name (Clodowald) still survives in the celebrated palace of St. Cloud, erected in the village to which he retired. This monster of cruelty (Clothaire) eventually became sole king of France, but dying in the year 561, a fresh partition was made among his four surviving sons, and a period ensued which is perhaps the darkest and dreariest in the annals of France.

From a very early date the office of "Mayor of the Palace," had existed among the Franks, the appointment being invested in the king. Gradually, however, this master of the household became the leader of the aristocratic faction, and usurped political power. Later on, we find the office becoming elective in the hands of the nobles; and a rival power was thus constituted in the state, the tendency of which was to supplant the Merovingian dynasty. In the year 613

CLOTHAIRE II., grandson of the first, once more re-united the four kingdoms, and under his son

DAGOBERT (A.D. 628) the dynasty reached its culminating point.

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## HISTORY OF BRITAIN.

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### PERIOD I.

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At the time of the Fall of Rome Hengist was in possession of Kent, but the rest of the island enjoyed peace. When the strong hand of Rome was removed, native chiefs aimed at supremacy, each in his own province, and attempted to aggrandize themselves at the expense of their neighbours. The oppressed and the ambitious equally craved the favor of the German tribes, and aided them in the conquest of the country. Mercia (the Borders) was the soil upon which all the races, Saxon, Roman, Celtic, met, and grew into one. They fought, and then embraced. None were so decidedly supreme as to win the land, and call it exclusively after their own name.

The kingdom of Sussex was founded in the year 491 by Ella, a Saxon chief, who took the town of Anderida, putting all the garrison to the sword. His son Cissa improved the capital of the new state, and called it Cissa-Ceaster (Cissa's Castle), now Chichester.

Parallel with Theodoric the Ostrogoth was our British prince Arthur (A.D. 518—542), who founded his order of the Round Table at Winchester, and was assassinated by one of his own kinsmen. In his reign Porra, another Saxon, landed, and built the

town now occupied by Portsmouth. The third of the kingdoms of the heptarchy, **WESSEX**, was founded in the year 519 by Cerdric; **ESSEX**, in 527 by Erkenwin; **NORTHUMBRIA**, in 547 by Ida, with a body of Angles; **EAST ANGLIA**, in 575 by Uffa; **MERCIA**, in 582 by Creda. It was a few years after this, that Augustine landed on the shores of Kent with his little band of missionaries. Just as Mahomet was rising in the East, Ethelbert, king of Kent, was baptised into the Christian faith in the West.

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**HISTORY OF THE RISE OF MAHOMETANISM.**

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**PERIOD I.**

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WHILE the Eastern empire was exhausted by the Persian war, during the reign of Heraclius, a revolution occurred in the East which impressed a new character on the nations of the globe. In the year 610 Mahomet, a descendant of the most illustrious Arab princes, suddenly assumed the title of a prophet. He pretended to divine communications through the medium of the angel Gabriel. These, collected and written by his disciples, compose the celebrated Koran. He was bitterly opposed by the Koreish, the priesthood of Arabia, and would probably have been assassinated by them, had not six men of Jewish origin declared their full conviction that he was the expected prophet of God, and protected him from injury. His followers pretend that he took a nocturnal journey to heaven, starting on a mysterious animal, the Borak, which conveyed him from Mecca to Jerusalem; whence he was transported by Gabriel into the presence of God, and received instructions how to benefit mankind. The twelfth year of his mission was signalled by the conversion of the inhabitants of Medina, which so

exasperated his enemies at Mecca, that his assassination was determined on. Aware of his danger he fled, and with some difficulty reached Medina A.D. 622, a year rendered memorable as the era from which Mahometan nations still date.

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## HISTORY OF SPAIN.

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### PERIOD I.

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EURIC the VISIGOTH was established in Spain at the time of the overthrow of the Western empire, and may be regarded as the virtual founder of the dynasty which for three centuries ruled the peninsula. He held sway not only south of the Pyrenees, but over the greater part of Gaul, and ruled with justice and moderation.

During the time of his son and successor Alaric II., Clovis, king of the Franks, resolved to widen his dominions by wresting from the Visigoths the southern part of Gaul. At a great battle near Poitiers he completely defeated them, slew Alaric in single combat, and left his followers, in addition to the peninsula, only the narrow strip of coast between the Rhone and the Pyrenees, known as Septimania. The capital of the Visigoths was transferred from Toulouse to Toledo. The daughter of Clovis, the princess Clotilda, was given in marriage to

AMALRIC, the next king of Spain, but she was so ill-treated by the people, that her brother Childebert entered with an army, and killed her husband. There being no heir to the crown, the nobles elected

THEUDAS, an Ostrogoth, during whose time the Franks again made inroads into Spain.



LEOVIGILD in the year 583 overthrew the kingdom of the Suevi in Galicia.

RECARED I. renounced the faith of the Goths (Arianism), and attached himself to the see of Rome; and thus the unity of the Spanish nation was maintained by the Roman Catholic religion, and the political influence of the priests.

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## PERIOD II.

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*From the Hejira A.D. 622, to the Coronation of  
Charlemagne A.D. 800.*

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### HISTORY OF ITALY.

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#### PERIOD II.

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DURING a period of two hundred years Italy was unequally divided between the kingdom of the Lombards and the exarchate of Ravenna. The former was shared, and at times oppressed by twenty different dukes; but several of the Lombard kings were worthy of note, and the Italians enjoyed a milder and more equitable government than any of the other kingdoms which had been founded on the ruins of the Western empire. When, however, Charlemagne pursued his conquering way over the Alps, Pavia was invested; and the last of the native princes, Desiderius, surrendered his sceptre and his capital (A.D. 774). Charlemagne gathered all the Teutonic nations, either by inheritance or conquest, under his dominion, and was crowned on Christmas Day (A.D. 800) Emperor of the

West by Pope Leo III. In return he bestowed on the Papacy the lands which had formed the exarchate of Ravenna ; and for the first time the world beheld a Christian bishop invested with the prerogatives of a temporal prince.

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## HISTORY OF THE EASTERN EMPIRE.

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### PERIOD II.

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THE Eastern empire, which appeared to be on the brink of ruin from the invasion of Chosroes, was saved by Heraclius in a series of splendid campaigns. He not only recovered the provinces which the Romans had lost, but carried his victorious arms into the heart of the Persian empire. Borne down by his misfortunes, and worn out by age and fatigue, Chosroes resolved in the year 628 to abdicate; but Siroes, his eldest son, anticipated his design, deposed his father, and put him to death. He then concluded a peace with the emperor Heraclius, but lived only eight months. His infant son, the last of the Sassanidæ in the male line, was murdered a few days after his father's death, and for twenty years the throne of Persia was disputed by candidates of doubtful descent. At length, in the year 657, it passed into the hands of the Mahometans. Heraclius died in the year 641, and his son CONSTANTINE III. occupied the throne only one hundred and three days, when his little son

CONSTANS II. succeeded. Tormented, when he reached man's estate, by a jealous fear of his brother Theodosius, he caused him to be murdered. Remorse

drove him into voluntary exile at Syracuse, where he perished by domestic treason (A.D. 668).

CONSTANTINE IV., his eldest son, inherited his throne till the year 685, when his son

JUSTINIAN II. succeeded. He was a worthless, cruel tyrant, and was banished by his subjects to Tartary (A.D. 695); but after an absence of ten years he regained his throne, only, however, to exceed his former atrocities. Popular fury put an end to his life, and that of all his family, and after six years of anarchy a new dynasty was founded in the person of

LEO III., The Isaurian (A.D. 717), general of the Oriental troops. Believing that the victories of Islam were owing more to Christian weakness than to Moslem strength, he resolved to root out the idolatry which was overspreading the Church. The consequence was that all Christendom was severed into two great bands—Image-Servers, and Image-Breakers. The Pope was the leader of the first, the Eastern emperor of the second. From this controversy we may date the rise of the Greek Church; for the gulf between Constantinople and Rome was never entirely bridged over. In the year 741 Leo died, and was succeeded by his son

CONSTANTINE V., a dissolute and cruel emperor. Dying in the year 775, his son

LEO IV., the husband of the celebrated Irene, mounted the throne, and in five years she became, by his death (A.D. 780), guardian of

CONSTANTINE VI., and of the Roman world. Her zeal in the restoration of images acquired for her the honor of canonization in the Greek calendar; but her name should be justly odious to posterity, as the most

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unnatural of mothers. When her son grew up, so bitter was the strife between them, that she caused him at last to be deprived of sight, in order that she might reign with undisputed power (A.D. 797).

IRENE's reign was crowned with external splendour, but at length a conspiracy was formed against her; she was banished to Lesbos, and by the time that Charlemagne had become emperor of the West, the usurper

NICEPHORUS I. had obtained the throne of Constantinople (A.D. 802).

## HISTORY OF MAHOMETANISM.

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PERIOD II.

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THE religion of the Koran would probably have perished in its infancy if Medina had not welcomed the outcast Prophet, and its principal citizens promised to obey him as their leader. He first assumed the exercise of the sacerdotal office, and then announced his intention of propagating his religion by the sword. To pursue the unbelieving nations of the earth now became his purpose, and submission or battle was the alternative granted to them. "The sword," he cried, "is the key of heaven and hell."

His earliest attacks were upon the caravans of his ancient enemies the Koreish, who were terrified into a peace of ten years. He then turned his arms against the wealthy town of Chaibar, the Jewish capital of Northern Arabia, which submitted to his yoke, and thus Arabia was at his feet. King, in all but name, he sent embassies to Heraclius, and to Chosroes, demanding submission to his faith. Both disregarded his claim, but at Muta, east of the Dead Sea, the troops of the Eastern empire were met by the soldiers of Islam, and thoroughly beaten. The great achievement of Mahomet's later life was the occupation of

Mecca (A.D. 629). Not only were the keys surrendered to him, but his faith was proclaimed, and a perpetual law enacted, that no unbeliever should dare to set his foot on the territory of the Holy City.

The last military efforts of Mahomet were directed against Syria. His lieutenant Caled spread his dominion from the Euphrates to Akaba, at the head of the eastern gulf of the Red Sea, the capture of which opened the path of the Moslems into Africa. The Prophet himself was half way to Damascus, when he was obliged to come back to Medina to die (A.D. 632). His only son Ibrahim being dead, four candidates claimed to be his successor: (1) Abu Beker, the father of his favourite wife; (2) Omar, father of another wife; (3) Othman, the husband of two of his daughters; and (4) Ali, his cousin, husband of Fatima, his only living child. The first of these, being appointed caliph, signalised his reign by the establishment of a Moslem kingdom on the right bank of the Euphrates, but died in the year 634, when the second aspirant,

OMAR, succeeded to his honors. He pressed on the Syrian war; Jerusalem surrendered to Caled (A.D. 637), and the mosque of Omar now rises where the Jewish Temple once stood. Amru, one of his lieutenants, then fought his way through Egypt, crowning his victories with the conquest of Alexandria. About the same time, the fate of the Persian monarchy was virtually decided by the battle of Cadesia (A.D. 636) on the Tigris. The grandson of CHOSROES, Yezdegerd, who was then upon the throne, was obliged to flee, his capital Ctesiphon was sacked, and Omar removed the seat of government to Cufa. He also founded



Bassora on the Euphrates. The Saracen conqueror of Syria, Egypt, and Persia, was stabbed in the mosque at Medina by a Persian fire-worshipper (A.D. 644).

The third candidate, OTHMAN I., succeeded to the Caliphate (A.D. 644—655), and during his time the Moslem fleet spread terror in the Levant, conquering Cyprus and Rhodes, and destroying the famous Colossus. Othman I. was murdered in his own house by a mob; and then ALI'S turn came to rule; but discord was already at work in the provinces, and the standard of revolt was openly raised by Moawiyah, the emir of Syria. Ali was assassinated (A.D. 661), and his rival became the founder of the great Ommiyad line. In his time the Mahometans first appeared in arms under the walls of Constantinople, led by Yezid, his ignoble son. The siege lasted seven years (A.D. 668—675), and then the fruitless enterprise was abandoned. Moawiyah died (A.D. 679) at Damascus, the capital he preferred, and

YEZID'S reign ended in the year 684. MERWAN and ABDALMALEK followed in quick succession. In 705

AL WALID I. mounted the Prophet's throne, and greatly extended the Moslem dominions by the conquest of Sindh in the East, and of Spain in the West. The northern coast of Africa had already fallen under the Moslem yoke; and in the year 710 Tarik, the lieutenant of the Saracen general Musa, crossed the strait from Tangier with five hundred men, landing at the rock which has ever since borne his name. In the year 711 he met and defeated Roderick, the last of the Visigothic kings; and Musa, following up his con-

quests, added the peninsula to the empire of the Caliphs. Al Walid died in the year 717, and

SULEIMAN succeeded. Again the conquest of Constantinople was attempted without success, and in the year 732 Charles Martel drove back the Saracen host from the South of France, and saved Western Europe from the fate of the East. Numerous caliphs of the Ommiyad dynasty ruled at Damascus, until in the year 750 it was extinguished in blood, and the sceptre was seized by the ABBASIDES, the descendants of Abbas, the uncle of Mahomet.

ABDALLAH, now acknowledged as the successor of the Prophet, re-established Medina as the capital of his dominions. This revolution tended to dissolve the power and unity of the Saracen empire.

Abdalahman, a royal youth of the family of the Ommiades, escaped the rage of his enemies, landed on the coast of Andalusia, and after a successful struggle established the throne of Cordova; and was the father of the Ommiades of Spain, who reigned for two hundred and fifty years. His example was imitated by several pretenders, till at length the Islam empire stretching from the Indus to the Atlantic, was broken into four parts—the Caliphate of Cordova—that of the Abbassides in Asia and Egypt—that of the Mekines, answering to modern Morocco—and that of Cairoan, along the old Carthaginian shore. Of the Abbassides, the most distinguished was

HAROUN-AL-RASCHID (Aaron the Just), who founded Bagdad (A.D. 765). This city became the centre of Moslem power in Asia. The caliphs soon disdained the abstinence and frugality of the first successors of

the Prophet, and aspired to emulate the magnificence of the Persian kings.

Before his accession, Haroun had withstood the arms of the Eastern empire and compelled Irene to pay tribute. He was the friend and contemporary of Charlemagne, and like him made his capital the centre of genius and learning.

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## HISTORY OF FRANCE.

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### PERIOD II.

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THE successors of Dagobert lapsed into a state of imbecility, both physical and mental, so that the title of *rois fainéants* is justly applied to later princes of the line of Clovis.

The mayors of the palace monopolized the government, and the kings were such only in name. Pepin d'Heristal held supreme power in Austrasia, with the title of duke, and invading Neustria, defeated the nominal king (THERRY III.), and his mayor, at TESTRI (A.D. 687), and thus became master of France. He avoided a direct usurpation of the throne, but governed wisely and well for twenty-seven years; and on his death, in the year 714, his son CHARLES MARTEL established his authority with little difficulty over the three kingdoms of Austrasia, Neustria, and Burgundy. The South of France was chiefly under the sway of Eudes, duke, or king, of Aquitaine.

One of the chief exploits of Charles was his defeat of the Moors at Tours, in the year 732. They had already crossed the Pyrenees, and reduced the whole of Septimania to submission, but were driven back by this martial prince, who thus acquired the title of "The Hammerer." Dying in the year 741, he divided

the Frankish empire between his sons, Carloman and Pepin, the former governing Austrasia, the latter Neustria, Burgundy, and Provence. Carloman, however, retired to a monastery, and Pepin's designs then became apparent. With the sanction of the Pope, Childeric, the last of the Merovingians, was formally deposed, and Pepin proclaimed king of the Franks (A.D. 752), and crowned at St. Denis. During his time Septimania was wrested from the Saracens, and finally annexed to the French crown; Aquitaine was also incorporated with the Carlovingian empire.

Pepin le Bref died in the year 768, leaving his great possessions to his two sons, Charles and Carloman. The latter died somewhat mysteriously in the year 771, and thus the whole of the Frankish dominions were united under the sceptre of his celebrated brother, known as

CHARLEMAGNE, or "Charles the Great." He was destined, however, to bear rule over a still more extensive territory. He responded to the appeal of the Pope against the Lombards (LANGOBARDI), a people who, after settling in Pannonia, subdued the northern part of Italy, and extended themselves southwards, forming the powerful duchies of Spoleto and Benevento. Their king resided at Pavia, which city, as well as Verona, fell into the hands of the great conqueror, who at once assumed the iron crown of Lombardy.

The forests of Germany, however, seem to have allured him even more than the fair lands of the south, and nearly thirty years were occupied in the subjugation of the Saxons, who made an heroic attempt at

resistance, under their chief Witikind. Another accession of territory was made by the invasion of Spain, and the conquest of the north-eastern corner of that country as far as the Ebro. Like Alexander the Great, he seemed born for universal dominion, and reached the summit of his ambition when in the year 800 he was crowned Emperor of the West, at Rome, by Pope Leo III. He was, perhaps, greater as a politician than as a warrior. He reformed the coinage, encouraged learned men of every country, founded schools, collected libraries, attempted the formation of a naval force, and moulded the discordant codes of Roman and barbarian laws into a uniform system. His religious intolerance is the great stain on his memory. Thousands of Saxons were butchered because they would not submit to baptism, and sentence of death was pronounced on any who tasted meat during Lent. He was so indefatigable a student, that in his palace at Aix-la-Chapelle he and his court pursued a regular course of study under ALCUIN, their Anglo-Saxon preceptor, a native of York.

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## HISTORY OF GERMANY.

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### PERIOD II.

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As the Franks were rulers of Germany as well as France, the history of the Merovingian kings, and the story of their fall, is common to both countries. (See History of France, Period II.)

## HISTORY OF SPAIN.

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PERIOD II.

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TOWARDS the end of the seventh century, the Saracens having overrun Barbary with a rapidity which nothing could resist, and possessed themselves of the Gothic dominions in Africa, resolved on the invasion of Spain.

RODERIC was then upon the throne, and being a usurper, had many enemies among the family of the former king, and the nobles of the land. Musa, the Mahometan general, sent his lieutenant Tarik across the straits, and after his first victory he led his men to the perpendicular rock at the extreme southern point of Spain, which was from that time named Gebel Tarik, or the Rock of Tarik. Gibraltar is a corruption of this name. Roderic, at this juncture, resolved to risk the fate of his empire on a single battle, and met Tarik in a plain near Xeres, in Andalusia. The Goths began the attack with great fury, but were totally defeated, and Roderic in his flight was drowned in the Guadalquiver (A.D. 711). Tarik became master of Malaga, Elvira, Cordova, and even Toledo. Musa, jealous of his success, crossed into the peninsula himself, and besieged Saragossa, which, after a brave defence, surrendered, and Garona, Barcelona, and Terragona shared the same fate.

The Goths, who still contended for independence, retired into the mountainous parts of Asturias, Burgos, and Biscay; and in the year 718 their power began to revive under

DON PELAGIO, a prince of the royal blood, who established himself with his followers in the mountain fastnesses of the north, and successfully resisted the Moorish army sent against them. Thus the greater part of Spain became a province of the Caliphs of Bagdad.

But perpetual discord between rival viceroys kept the country in a state of distraction until the year 757, when the chiefs met in council, and resolved to appoint a king in the person of

ABDERAHMAN I., the only remaining prince of the House of Omar. He arrived from Africa with a splendid train of Arab soldiers, and fixed his residence in Cordova, which became the capital of his Moorish empire. He was amiable and talented, encouraged commerce and the arts, made wise and beneficent regulations, and built at Cordova that magnificent mosque, which still exists as a monument of this interesting and enlightened people. It was supported by three hundred and sixty-five marble columns, had nineteen gates of curious workmanship, and was lighted by four thousand seven hundred lamps, kept burning continually. We are indebted to the Moors for the elements of many useful sciences, particularly that of chemistry. Paper was first made in Europe by them, and their carpets and manufactures in steel and leather were long unrivalled. Christians of all nations went to study in the Arabian schools of



Cordova, where mathematics, astronomy, philosophy, botany, and medicine were taught with success.

In the year 778 Charlemagne crossed the Pyrenees with two large armies, one passing through Catalonia, and the other through Navarre, where he pushed his conquests as far as the Ebro.

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## HISTORY OF BRITAIN.

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### PERIOD II.

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THE kings of the Heptarchy were constantly at war with each other, and the boundaries of the seven states were always changing. The supremacy of Northumbria was for a time unquestioned, but from the year 716 to the end of this Period Mercia rose to great power. In the year 800, however, a king ascended the throne of Wessex, who had imbibed imperial notions at the court of Charlemagne, and carried them out in his own dominions. This was

EGBERT, virtually the first king of all England.

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### PERIOD III.

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*From the Coronation of Charlemagne A.D. 800, to the  
First Crusade A.D. 1096.*

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### HISTORY OF ITALY.

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#### PERIOD III.

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At the division of Charlemagne's empire in the year 843, Italy fell to the share of Lothaire; but after the feeble rule of his sons, this branch of the Carlovingian family became extinct, and the many rival dukes found themselves without a feudal master. The great Lombard duchy of Benevento had by that time fallen into decay; and the chief aspirants to power were the dukes of Spoleto and Tuscany, and the marquises of Ivrea, Susa, and Friuli. Meanwhile the southern coasts were infested by the Saracens, now masters of Sicily, and plunged in difficulties from which they saw no escape. Italy lost sight of her favorite independence, and called in the assistance of Otho I., king of Germany. Little opposition was made to this powerful monarch. Berenger, marquis of Friuli, calling himself king of Italy, submitted to the position

of a vassal, but was afterwards deposed; and in the year 961 Otho received at the hands of the Pope the imperial dignity, which had been suspended for nearly forty years. Most of the Lombard princes acquiesced in the new German government, and things went well during the time of the prudent Otho and his immediate successors. But the Italians were not disposed to swear allegiance to every sovereign whom the electors might raise to the throne, and often there was no recognised government at all. Meanwhile the Papacy was in a degraded state, and a series of profligate pontiffs occupied the chair of St. Peter. The emperor Henry III. attempted to improve this state of things, and in the year 1049 appointed a strict and devout German bishop, Leo IX. On his journey to Rome he stopped at the French monastery of Cluny, where he met a young Italian sojourner, Hildebrand, destined to play an important part in European history. The latter accompanied Leo to Rome, guided the Papacy for twenty-five years, and then (A.D. 1073) became himself Pope, under the title of Gregory VII., and ushered in a period of marvellous might and majesty for the successors of St. Peter. But the two powers—the Holy Roman Empire and the Holy Roman Church—could not agree to reign together. Each wished to be master of the other, and a conflict ensued between them which lasted for two centuries. Hildebrand never rested till the emperor (Henry IV.) crouched at his feet; but the tables were then turned. A rival Pope was inaugurated by Henry, and Hildebrand died in exile, in the dominions of his Norman friend and vassal, Robert Guiscard (A.D. 1085)

Urban II., his successor, was a man of kindred spirit ; and it was when cast forth from Rome by the rival pontiff, Clement III., that he listened to Peter the Hermit's tale of shame and sorrow concerning the insulted Sepulchre, and stirred up the representatives of Christendom to the rescue of the Holy Land.

Meanwhile great changes had taken place in the South of Italy. The followers of Rollo the Norman became devout professors of the Christian faith, and gratified their love of adventure by making pilgrimages to Italy, and even to the Holy Land. Some of these were engaged by a Lombard prince of Salerno to assist him against the Saracens. They made surprising havoc amongst the enemy, and were rewarded with lands. Here they founded the little city of Aversa, near Capua (A.D. 1028), and thus established, aided the Greek emperor against the Mahometans in the contest for Sicily. They were ill repaid by their ungrateful employers, and revenged themselves by a sudden invasion of Apulia. This province was speedily subdued, and divided among twelve Norman counts ; but soon afterwards ROBERT GUISCARD acquired the whole sovereignty, and adding Calabria to his conquests (A.D. 1057), put an end to the long dominion of the Eastern emperors in Italy. Roger, his younger brother, conquered the island of Sicily, and took the title of count. His son, upon the extinction of Robert's posterity, united the two Roman sovereignties, and subjugating the free republics of Naples and Amalfi, at length established a boundary which for centuries remained unchanged.

## HISTORY OF THE EASTERN EMPIRE.

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PERIOD III.

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A SERIES of unimportant emperors succeeded Nicephorus at Constantinople, and in the year 867 his dynasty became extinct by the murder of Michael III. The assassin,

BASIL I., a Macedonian, mounted the throne for which he had cleared his way, and claimed descent from Alexander the Great. The rule of the Macedonian dynasty extended over this Period, and contains some of the most brilliant pages in Byzantine history. The silk-looms and wool-marts of Constantinople were busy, and the great tide of traffic from the East poured through the Eastern capital into Europe. The greatest of these Macedonian emperors was

JOHN ZIMISCES (A.D. 969), who by his double triumph over the Russians and the Saracens, deserved the title of Saviour of the Empire. He was probably poisoned through envy, and the throne then passed successively into the hands of feeble sovereigns, who were a disgrace to society, and oppressors of their subjects. The last of these, MICHAEL VI., was set aside by the eunuchs of the palace, and

ISAAC COMNENUS raised to the imperial dignity (A.D. 1057). His failing health compelled him to

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abdicate after two years, but his family upheld for awhile the fate of the sinking empire. The close of the eleventh century was marked by the advance of the Turks to the Hellespont; and when crusading armies began to pour into the Holy Land, Constantinople seemed likely to be swept away by the impetuous deluge.

ALEXIUS or ALEXIS COMNENUS (A.D. 1081) was then upon the throne, a man able to cope with the difficulties of his position. He revived the discipline of the camp, encouraged the arts and sciences, and dexterously hastened the departure of the Crusaders, whose licentious and barbarous soldiery could hardly be welcome in his dominions.

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## HISTORY OF MAHOMETANISM.

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PERIOD III.

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DURING the reign of

ALMAMON, the son and successor of Haroun, the island of Sicily was conquered by the Saracens, and Palermo chosen for the seat of their naval power. Had the Saracens been united, Italy would have fallen an easy prey to the empire of the Prophet; but the Caliphs of Bagdad had lost their authority in the West; and instead of conquest and dominion, the Moslems of Sicily contented themselves with predatory inroads. The caliphs themselves became weak and powerless, and with MONTASSEM, the eighth of the Abbassides, the glory of the nation expired. He committed the fatal mistake of introducing fifty thousand Turks into his capital, employing them in his armies, and selecting his body-guard from their ranks. As might be expected, they eventually rose against their masters, and placed a fresh leader on the throne. By the end of the ninth century there were no fewer than five independent powers in the caliph's nominal dominions. One of the self-appointed rebels (Ahmed) declared himself Sultan of Egypt (A.D. 878); and by the year 937 nothing outside the walls of Bagdad belonged to its lawful or supposed

ruler. The Moslem empire was shared by fourteen usurpers, and Al Rahdi, the thirty-ninth of the successors of Mahomet, was the last who deserved the title of Commander of the Faithful (A.D. 937).

The Turks, whose original seat was beyond the Caspian Sea, had by this time overspread Persia, and erected a solid empire, over which MAHMOUD, one of their princes, reigned from the year 997—1028. He assumed the title of Sultan, and reigned from the shores of the Caspian to the mouth of the Indus. His dynasty was overthrown by a successful rival, Togrul Beg (A.D. 1038—1063), who embraced with fervour the religion of Mahomet. His grandson MALEK SHAH (A.D. 1072—1092) was the greatest prince of his age. He stretched his jurisdiction from the neighbourhood of Constantinople to the frontiers of China. The language and literature of Persia revived, and the cities of Asia were adorned with palaces, mosques, and colleges. He died A.D. 1092, and the greatness and unity of the Turkish empire expired in his person.

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## HISTORY OF RUSSIA.

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### PERIOD III.

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**AFTER** the Huns had passed westward from the Russian plains to ravage Western Europe, the Slavonians located themselves in their place, a strong, active, intelligent race, but sunk in heathenism and barbarism. Weary of their incessant civil wars, they resolved in the year 862 to elect a king, and their choice fell upon

Ruric, a Scandinavian chief, who thus became the father of a dynasty which occupied the throne seven hundred years. He fixed the seat of his government at Novgorod, and reigned seventeen years. He was succeeded by his brother-in-law

Oleg, the guardian of his infant son Igor. His first expedition was against Kief, of which he made himself master by treachery; then embarking an army of eighty thousand men in rude canoes down the Dnieper, he appeared, to the astonishment of the Greeks, before Constantinople. The emperor Leo VI. offered him terms of peace, which were accepted; but Oleg hung up his shield over the golden gate as a trophy of conquest. He died A.D. 912, and his nephew

Igor then mounted the throne. He also made a naval attack on Constantinople, but was unable to stand the Greek fire, and returned with the loss of

two-thirds of his armament. He was slain in battle against a hostile tribe (A.D. 945), and left his sceptre to his queen

OLGA, the first Christian ruler in Russia. She was baptized at Constantinople (A.D. 955), the emperor Constantine VIII. standing as sponsor. Her son SVIATOSLAF refused to adopt her faith. He was fond of war and enterprise, and demanded Bulgaria from John Zimisce, but had to encounter in him no ordinary foe, and met with repulse. A hostile tribe attacked him at the mouth of the Dnieper, and he and his gallant army perished together. He has been called the "Alexander of Russian history" (A.D. 972). His dominions were divided among his three sons, the youngest of whom put his brothers to death, and ruled alone. This was

VLADIMIR I., who finding nothing in paganism to enable him to still the upbraidings of conscience embraced Christianity, and became a wise and beneficent ruler. He sent missionary bishops and clergy to preach the Gospel to the remotest bounds of the empire. Dying in the year 1015, and leaving twelve sons, a period of discord ensued, but the empire was finally consolidated under

YAROSLAV the Wise, who has earned the greatest name in the annals of ancient Russia. His sister Mary was queen of Poland, and the kings of Sweden, Hungary, and France were his sons-in-law. His eldest son married Gyda, daughter of Harold; another the daughter of the Eastern emperor (Constantine Monomachus), and a third a German princess. He was the author of the first national code of law, and

had the entire Scriptures translated into the vernacular tongue. He greatly enlarged Kief, and built in it a magnificent cathedral. He also founded the first college in Russia at Novgorod.

The two sons of Edmund Ironsides took refuge at the court of this grand prince, and he was loved as a father by his subjects. He died A.D. 1054, and with him expired the prosperity of his country. He committed the oft-repeated mistake of dividing his dominions among his sons, who soon found occasion to quarrel with one another, and fell an easy prey to foreign invaders. By degrees the grand princes of Kief sank into insignificance, and new states arose in their midst ; that of Kalisch on the borders of Poland ; the Grand Duchy of Vladimir, north-east of Moscow ; and the fierce and turbulent republic of Novgorod.

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## HISTORY OF FRANCE.

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### PERIOD III.

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THE descendants of Charlemagne were unworthy, and unequal to maintain the empire which he had founded. His younger son

LOUIS "Le Debonnaire" succeeded his father in the year 814, but Italy was at first under the government of Bernhard, son of the late Pepin, Charlemagne's eldest son. Hostilities broke out between uncle and nephew, and the latter was condemned to perpetual imprisonment, with loss of sight. Death, however, came to his rescue, which plunged Louis into such remorse, that he submitted to public penance for his crime. His reign is the history of the intrigues and quarrels of his sons, who ultimately, on his death in the year 840, divided his dominions, and thus the Carolingian empire was dismembered, never again to be re-united.

Charles "The Bald" became king of France; Louis "Le Germain" of Germany; Lothaire of Italy. As even then they could not agree, a meeting was held at Verdun (A.D. 843), at which the limits of their respective territories were finally adjusted. The northern parts of Lothaire's dominions received from him the name of Lotharingia, since corrupted into Lorraine.

But even thus, unity was not secured to France. The great nobles, taking advantage of the discords of the late reign, had set themselves up as petty, independent sovereigns; and thus three important provinces had already assumed the attitude of independent states. These were AQUITAINE, LANGUEDOC, and Brittany.

LOUIS II., "The Stammerer," who in the year 877 succeeded his father, reigned only eighteen months, and dying in the year 879, his two sons were raised to the throne conjointly.

LOUIS reigned in the north.

CARLOMAN in the south.

During their time the south-eastern provinces of France asserted their independence, and thus was founded the kingdom of Burgundy, which for one hundred and fifty years maintained a separate existence, having Arles for its capital. Louis died in the year 882, and Carloman in 884, leaving no children; and the crown devolved on

CHARLES "The Simple," their half-brother, an infant of five years. In consequence of his tender age, the nobles adjudged the throne to Charles "The Fat," younger son of Louis le Germain, who already possessed both Italy and Germany. It appeared therefore, for a while, as though the empire of Charlemagne was about to be restored; but Charles was utterly unworthy of his position, and an overwhelming invasion of the Northmen, under Rollo, threatened Paris itself with destruction. The capital was nobly defended by Eudes, count of Paris, who thus saved her from a degradation which the indolent Charles

would have witnessed with indifference. This wretched and incompetent prince was deposed in the year 888, and the young prince Charles the Simple was then crowned at Rheims by one party, while another proclaimed Count Eudes at Paris. The latter, however, died, and Charles was thus enabled to maintain his position with tolerable tranquillity.

To secure the future peace of the country, he ceded to Rollo the rich province which has ever since borne the name of his followers, on condition that he should cease to ravage the coasts, and should receive Christian baptism. This accomplished, he proved himself an able ruler, and Normandy rose to a state of great prosperity, while the rest of the country was distracted by civil war, owing to the weakness and incompetency of the king. He died in the year 929, and his young son

LOUIS IV. was unable to stem the torrent of anarchy which now desolated the country. He was thwarted by the powerful barons at every turn, till at last the royal domain comprised little more than the rock of Laon, and the district immediately surrounding it.

This noble but unfortunate king died in the year 954, and the crown devolved on his son

LOTHAIRE. But while the princes of the Carolingian dynasty thus ostensibly governed, the real power was wielded by the counts of Paris, who were also called dukes of France; and we are, therefore, not surprised to find that on the death of Lothaire, in the year 986, and accession of

LOUIS V., the condition of the kingdom was so deplorable, that all eyes turned to Hugh Capet, as the most powerful of the barons.

After a short reign Louis died in a somewhat mysterious manner, and at a great assembly of the nobles, held at Senlis, the crown was offered to the count of Paris, and his coronation took place in the year 987.

HUGH CAPET was thus the founder of the great dynasty which ruled the fortunes of France for eight centuries, though he was himself little more than the feudal superior of the great barons. Paris became once more the capital, but the southern provinces refused to recognise his title. He died in the year 996, and

ROBERT "The Pious" succeeded, but being entirely devoted to ecclesiastical matters he exercised no political influence, and had a stormy reign.

Religious ardour reached its height towards the year 1000, when a general impression prevailed that the end of all things was at hand. The clergy were not slow to avail themselves of this fervor, and urged the faithful to works of supposed merit. Hence the wonderful architectural movement which achieved the construction of the abbeys of St. Martin at Tours, and Cluny, the church of St. Agnan at Orleans, the cathedral of Angoulême, &c. The gentle spirit of the king sank under the grief occasioned by his rebellious children, and he died in the year 1031.

HENRY I. succeeded, but his mother intrigued with the great nobles to place her younger son upon the throne. Henry invoked the protection and succour of Robert of Normandy ("Robert le Diable"), who was more than a match for the opposition party, and defeated them in three pitched battles. Henry was a prince of no character or interest, and dying in the year 1060, his son

PHILIP I. mounted the throne.

It was during his minority that the conquest of England was effected by William of Normandy, whose fame naturally spread throughout Europe. It was also at this epoch that that marvellous outburst of military and religious frenzy was witnessed which resulted in a combination against the Turks, who had overrun Palestine, and threatened the very walls of Constantinople.



## HISTORY OF GERMANY.

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PERIOD III.

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At the time of the accession of Charlemagne (A.D. 771) the Saxons occupied all the North of Germany, and were the only German people who had never been subject to the Franks. Charles resolved to conquer them. Led on by their chieftain Witikind they defended themselves with determined bravery, but were obliged to submit at last. The outlying nations bordering on the Germanic portion of Charlemagne's empire became tributary, and owned him as their liege lord, and thus all Germany was brought for the first time under the rule of one man. The Rhineland, or home of the East Franks, was looked on as the centre of the empire, and Aix-la-Chapelle was its capital. He built there not only a palace, but a fine basilica, from which the French name of the town is derived.

The Gospel had been preached in Germany at the commencement of the eighth century by Winifred, an Anglo-Saxon monk, generally known by his monastic title of St. Boniface. In the year 742 he presided over the first German synod, and soon after became bishop of Mayence, the metropolitan see. It was reserved for Charlemagne to force Christianity upon

the Saxons. He died A.D. 814, and during the reign of his incompetent son,

LOUIS "The Pious," Germany was in a state of discord and confusion. At length, by the treaty of Verdun (A.D. 843), a division was agreed upon, and the Teutonic portion of the empire of Charlemagne fell to

LOUIS "The German," a prince of little character or power. He died suddenly at Frankfort (A.D. 876), and was succeeded by his son

CHARLES "The Fat," who was deposed in the year 887, and succeeded by

ARNULF, his illegitimate nephew. Dying in the year 889, his son

LOUIS "The Child" mounted the throne, and with him the Carolingian dynasty became extinct in Germany, for he died unmarried (A.D. 911). Meanwhile, during the century which had elapsed since the death of Charlemagne, the power of the great dukes had been rapidly increasing, and feudalism had taken the place of the old constitution. The king was rather the head of a great aristocracy than the sovereign of a nation. The most powerful of these dukes were those of Saxony, Franconia, Bavaria, Thuringia, Swabia, and Lorraine. When Louis the Child was dead, they met in council to elect a king, and their choice fell upon

CONRAD I., duke of Franconia (A.D. 911). The duke of Saxony immediately became his enemy, and his reign was spent in conflict with him, and with the duke of Bavaria. He was wounded in battle against the latter, and died (A.D. 919).

HENRY I. of Saxony was then elected, and is known in history as HENRY "The Fowler," from his love of falconry. He seized Lotharingia, and bestowed it on a duke, who held it as a fief of the German crown. Bohemia was forced to occupy the same position. Henry may be viewed as the founder of the burgher class, destined afterwards to become so important, as the traders of Germany. He died A.D. 936, and his son

OTHO I. was elected, and crowned at Aix-la-Chapelle. He married Edith, grand-daughter of king Alfred. The dukes of Franconia and Lorraine fell in battle against him. Otho kept the former duchy in his own hands, but gave Lorraine to count Conrad, his son-in-law. His son Ludolf married the daughter of Hermann, duke of Swabia, and became his successor. Bavaria had fallen vacant in the year 945, and was bestowed on Henry, Otho's brother. Thus all the great duchies were brought into the hands of the reigning family. In the year 951 Otho was invited to interfere in the affairs of Italy, which was now under the rule of many masters. One of these, Berenger, marquis of Friuli, took the title of king, and tried to force Adelaide, the beautiful widow of the last Lombard king, to marry his son Adelbert. On her refusal, he imprisoned her in a strong fortress on Lake Garda. Otho settled the question by marrying her himself, and he was then crowned at Pavia king of Lombardy. Meanwhile, the relations whom he had enriched rebelled against his authority, and much fighting ensued. Lorraine was given to Otho's brother Bruno, Archbishop of Cologne, and Swabia to Burchard, son-

in-law of Henry of Bavaria. William, Otho's eldest son, was made archbishop of Mayence. Italy again fell into confusion, and, marching thither, Otho proceeded to Rome, and received the imperial crown from the hands of Pope John XII. (A.D. 962). From this time the German kings were usually spoken of as emperors.

We may trace to this event much of the subsequent disunion which characterized the fatherland. The kings became involved in struggles, with which in reality they had nothing to do. While they were absent in Italy, their great vassals at home ruled as sovereign princes; and when they returned, they could do little against a united and powerful aristocracy. Germany was thus prevented from growing up, like France and England, into a firm monarchy, and was in the end divided into many independent small states. Otho died A.D. 973, and was succeeded by his son

OTHO II. He married the princess Theophania, daughter of the Eastern emperor, Nicephorus II.; and the refusal of the Greeks to give up certain lands which had been promised as her dowry, furnished him with a pretext for declaring war. He entered Southern Italy with a large army; but was defeated by the united forces of the Greeks and Saracens at Basantello, in Calabria, and died of grief the following year (983). His infant son

OTHO III. was elected as his successor, and his mother acted as regent. He was a young prince of great ability, but died in the year 1002, when

HENRY II., grandson of Henry of Bavaria, and great-nephew of Otho I., succeeded to the throne.

He was the last emperor of the House of Saxony. His reign was occupied in struggles with Boleslaus, king of Poland, whom he compelled to do him homage. He was a devoted friend of the Church, and hence acquired the title of "Saint." He died A.D. 1024, and was buried at Bamberg, where he had founded a bishopric. The assembly then met with great pomp on the banks of the Rhine, between Mayence and Worms, and elected

CONRAD II. of Franconia, a wise and firm ruler. At his coronation (A.D. 1027), Rodolph, king of Burgundy, and Canute of England were present.

The latter gave his daughter Cunihild in marriage to the emperor's son, and in return received the Mark of Schleswig. Conrad married Gisela, niece of the king of Burgundy, who left him his heir.

On Rodolph's death (A.D. 1032), Conrad took possession of his newly acquired dominions, which must be carefully distinguished from the Duchy of Burgundy, which was a fief of the French king. Conrad died at Spire, whose fine cathedral he had founded, and his son (A.D. 1039)

HENRY III. succeeded, and ruled with absolute power in church and state.

His son

HENRY IV. (A.D. 1056) was only six years old when his father died, and his mother Agnes thus became regent. She made Otho of Norheim, a powerful Saxon count, duke of Bavaria; but her son, on reaching his majority, unjustly deprived him of these lands, and gave them to Welf, whose mother was a descendant of the ancient Bavarian House of Welf.

This roused the indignation of the Saxons, who became his enemies, and much fighting ensued: but a far greater struggle was at hand.

Gregory VII. (Hildebrand) now occupied the papal chair, and was laying the foundation of that mighty structure which was destined to rear its head above all the powers of Europe.

He refused to submit to imperial interference, and constituted the papal see sole patron and proprietor of those enormous ecclesiastical endowments which had hitherto been held as fiefs of the empire. Gregory and Henry now came into collision. The latter deposed the Pope, who replied by excommunicating the emperor. The German nation was split into two parties, and the struggle which ensued was the bitterest and most prolonged of the Middle Ages. Seeing the danger of his position, Henry at length crossed the Alps to humble himself before Hildebrand, at the castle of Canossa. Meanwhile, the disaffected German nobles met, and elected an opposition emperor—Rodolph of Swabia. Henry hastened home, and was supported by those who had dreaded papal interference. Gregory recognised Rodolph, and again excommunicated the emperor, who, in return, deposed the Pope, and elected Clement III. Hastening to Rome, Henry was crowned by his own Pope; and returned to Germany, feeling that he had revenged the humiliation of Canossa. Hildebrand died in exile, while Henry and his Pope held possession of Rome.

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HISTORY OF SPAIN.  

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PERIOD III.  

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THREE caliphs of the name of ABDERAHMAN occupied successively the throne of Cordova, and the Spanish Mahometans speak of the THIRD (A.D. 912) as their most splendid ruler. He took the title of "Commander of the Faithful," and spent the first part of his reign in wars against the Christians, who had rapidly increased in strength, and extended their sway, not only in Spain, but over the North of Portugal. He also sent armies into Africa, and conquered the kingdom of Fez. He was probably the richest prince in Europe, and spent his vast revenues in beautifying his empire. He died in the year 961, and was succeeded by

ALHAKEM, under whose government the kingdom lost none of its greatness.

ALMANZAR "The Conqueror" followed as regent for Hixem, the infant son of the last monarch. He obtained his title from his successful wars with the Christians of the North. It is said that he won fifty-four battles, and died of grief in consequence of losing one (A.D. 1001).

After his death the kingdom fell into disorder, owing to discord and subdivision between rival claimants.

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The Christian princes took advantage of these internal dissensions to lead their vassals against one town after another, until four Christian Spanish kingdoms had been formed and established. That of Leon had added Old Castile (A.D. 939) to its dominion. The town of Jaca, situated in the long narrow valleys which intersect the northern ridge of the Pyrenees, was the capital of a little free state, which expanded into the kingdom of ARAGON. A territory, rather more extensive, belonged to NAVARRE, which, after the death of Charlemagne, asserted its independence, and elected a king, who held his petty court at Pampeluna. At the beginning of the eleventh century Aragon and Navarre were united under one head—SANCHO THE GREAT. His second son, FERDINAND I., soon became master of the united monarchies of LEON and the two Castiles (A.D. 1035), while his eldest son, RAMIRO, became king of Aragon, and another son, GARCIA, king of Navarre. PORTUGAL formed the fourth of this cluster of Christian monarchies. The part of it which had been conquered from the Moors formed at first part of Castile, and had been governed by counts. One of these, ALPHONSO, changed his title to that of king, and by degrees Portugal became a distinct kingdom.

It was in the time of Ferdinand I. of Castile, that there lived the renowned Christian hero, DON RODRIGO, known as the "CID." He was made champion of the kingdom, and gained many victories over the Moors. Being ungratefully treated by Alphonso, Ferdinand's son, he went to war with the Mahometans on his own account, conquered Valencia, and founded a



kingdom there for himself. On his death it was defended for eight years by his widow, but then relapsed into the hands of the Moors. All this time the Mahometan rule had been getting weaker, and successful rebels formed the states of Toledo, Huesca, Saragosa, and others; and these, in their own mutual contests, not only relaxed their natural enmity to the Christian princes, but sometimes sought their alliance. At length, in the year 1088, ALPHONSO VI., king of Castile, recovered Toledo, the ancient metropolis of the Visigoths, and in the year 1118 Saragosa was reduced by ALPHONSO I. of Aragon.

The progress of the Christian arms may partly be ascribed to the military orders which took their rise at this time. The Crusades undertaken in the East gave a stimulus to the Roman Catholics of the West, who proclaimed "Holy Wars" against the infidels of their own country, and urged the faithful to enlist under the banner of first one and then another hero.

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## HISTORY OF ENGLAND.

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### PERIOD III.

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SEE any History of England from A.D. 800 to 1096.

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PERIOD IV.  

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*From the First Crusade A.D. 1096, to the End of  
the Crusades A.D. 1291.*

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HISTORY OF THE CRUSADES.  

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PERIOD IV.  

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WE have seen that Malek Shah was the great ruler of the Turks (A.D. 1072—1092), and that Jerusalem was included among his conquests. Twenty years after its capture, the Holy Sepulchre was visited by Peter the Hermit, a monk of wild eloquence, who eagerly inquired of the patriarch of Constantinople, whether no hope of relief could be entertained from the Eastern emperor. The patriarch sighed, but Peter resolved to act; and returning to Europe, he went about with bare head, naked feet, and coarse garment, exhorting all true Christians to fly to arms. Pope Urban II. warmly seconded his views, and held a general council at Clermont in Auvergne, where he publicly addressed an immense audience in the market-place with such effect that all present pledged themselves to an immediate crusade against the Turks.

The Festival of the Assumption, August 15th, 1096, was fixed for their departure to the Holy Land; and the Pope granted a plenary indulgence to those who should enlist under the sacred banners. Anticipating the appointed day, a thoughtless rabble of three hundred thousand plebeians moved forward in the spring under Peter the Hermit, and his lieutenant Walter the Penniless, a disgrace to the cause, and a moving plague in the countries through which they passed. The reduced party who reached Constantinople were allured by Alexis to the Asiatic side of the Bosphorus, and moving thence towards Nice in Bithynia they were cut to pieces by the Turks.

At the appointed time, the princes of Europe were ready with an army able to redeem the character of the enterprise. They were headed by Godfrey de Bouillon; and numbered among their ranks Robert of Normandy, Hugh de Vermandois, Stephen of Blois, Raymond of Toulouse, and Bohemund of Tarentum, son of Robert Guiscard. By different routes they reached Constantinople, and marched on Nice, which fell after a seven weeks' siege. At DORYLÆUM a splendid victory ensued, in which Soliman, sultan of the Turks, took to flight. Antioch was next captured; and pursuing their victorious way, they reached Jerusalem, which after five weeks fell beneath their arms. Seventy thousand Moslems were massacred, and the Jews cruelly burned in their synagogue. Godfrey was made king under the title of Defender of the Holy Sepulchre, and defeated the sultan of Egypt at Ascalon; but his government was terminated by death within a year. The orders of the Hospital of St.

John and of the Templars then upheld the infant kingdom, and pilgrims were again able to visit their beloved shrine.

A.D. 1147—49 (SECOND).

Forty-eight years passed away, and again an enthusiastic monk roused all Europe to arms. The news was received that Edessa had fallen before the governor of Aleppo, and St. Bernard of Clairvaux re-kindled the martial zeal of Christendom. Louis VII. and Conrad III. were among the crusaders, and their combined armies arrived in Asia Minor; but Manuel, emperor of Constantinople, who was unfriendly to Conrad, cut off their supplies, and they fell an easy prey to the Saracens. Their siege of Damascus proved a miserable failure, and Bernard had to mourn over the mighty host which his eloquence had sent forth to destruction.

A.D. 1189—1192 (THIRD).

Forty years passed away, and intelligence was received in Europe that Jerusalem had fallen before Saladin, sultan of Egypt; and though no eloquent monk was at hand to stir up slumbering Christendom, a third crusade was undertaken, with three monarchs at its head. Frederick Barbarossa, starting from Ratisbon, pushed through to Asia Minor, conquered Iconium, and was drowned. Philip II. and Richard Cœur de Lion with their armies went by sea, and laid siege to Acre. Saladin yielded and retreated to the south. Philip returned to Europe discontented at the superiority of his rival. Richard advanced towards Jerusalem, but wavered; and returning home, fell

into the hands of an old enemy, and languished in prison.

A.D. 1195—1197 (FOURTH).

Personal ambition, not religious zeal, led to the fourth crusade. Henry VI. of Germany, at the instigation of Pope Celestine III. marched to the East, thinking that the distracted state of that court paved the way for his own designs upon Constantinople. Part of his army besieged Berytus, and set free nine thousand Christian prisoners who were incarcerated in its dungeons. But their victory was of short duration, and the death of the emperor led to the abandonment of the crusade.

A.D. 1198—1204 (FIFTH).

Jerusalem was still in the hands of the Turks, when a master-mind occupied the Papal chair in the person of Innocent III. Again a monk blew the sacred trumpet, and although Fulk of Neuilly was far inferior as an orator and as a statesman to St. Bernard, the fifth crusade was a far more brilliant one than that which he had proclaimed. Boniface, marquis of Montferrat, undertook the command of the expedition, but he turned aside from its real object. The storm threatened against Jerusalem spent its fury upon Constantinople. Isaac, the Eastern emperor, had been deposed and blinded by his brother Alexis. His son, the youthful Alexis, implored the assistance of the crusaders, offering them handsome remuneration. The tempting offer was accepted. A feeble resistance was made by the usurper, but after eleven days he fled, and Isaac was restored to the throne.

A quarrel then arose between the crusaders and the Greeks, whom they had assisted. Alexis was compelled to tax his subjects severely to meet his engagements with the Latins, and was moreover bound by agreement to acknowledge the supremacy of Rome.

His people revolted under the leadership of his cousin Alexis, who put him to death. Isaac soon followed his son to the grave, and the assassin seated himself upon the throne. The punishment of the Greeks now became the high ambition of the Latins, who after a second siege remained masters of the city. Baldwin, earl of Flanders, was elected emperor, with one-fourth of the dominions of the empire. Boniface became king of Thessalonica or Macedonia; and the barons of France and republic of Venice came in for their share. Thus the establishment of the Latins in Constantinople was the unlooked for result of the fifth crusade.

#### A.D. 1227—1229 (SIXTH).

Success attended the sixth crusade, though the crusader was an excommunicated man. Frederic II., of the great House of Hohenstaufen, obtained from the sultan of Egypt the restitution not only of Jerusalem, but also of Bethlehem and Nazareth, Tyre and Sidon.

Entering the Holy City in triumph, the emperor took the crown from the altar of the Holy Sepulchre and placed it on his own head. Religious freedom was granted to the Moslems, who were allowed to pray and preach in the mosque of Omar; but the Christian churches were restored, and the Latins of Jerusalem gradually reached the number of six thousand.

Frederic II. might have accomplished still more, had not the machinations of his enemy, Pope Gregory IX., compelled him to return home to defend his own dominions.

A.D. 1248—1254 (SEVENTH).

Again the news reached Europe that Jerusalem had been taken and sacked by the Kharismians, a people from the shores of the Caspian, who had been driven from their territory by the victorious arms of the Mongol Tartars. The military orders had been almost annihilated, the Holy Sepulchre profaned. France was at that time ruled by a saintly monarch, well fitted to undertake a new crusade. Louis IX. set sail, and after lingering in Cyprus, resolved to attack the sultan of Egypt. Landing at Damietta, he carried everything before him, but subsequent delay proved fatal. The crusaders were overpowered at Mansourah; the king's brother, the count of Artois, five hundred knights, and two hundred Templars perished; and though at a battle next day, the advantage remained with Louis, pestilence broke out in his army, and he was forced to retreat; and sinking under disease and exhaustion, he surrendered to the Saracens and was carried back in chains to Mansourah. He was ransomed by his subjects, but at the price of Damietta. He lingered at Acre four years, and then returned to France.

A.D. 1270—1272 (EIGHTH).

The news of the loss of Antioch once more roused St. Louis and prince Edward of England to arms. A wild hope of baptising the king of Tunis tempted

the former to steer for the African coast. Instead of a convert he found an enemy—his troops fell victims to the plague, and Louis himself expired in his tent. Prince Edward marched as far as Nazareth, but accomplished little. After concluding a ten years' truce with the sultan, he returned to England (A.D. 1272).

In the year 1291 the new sultan Khalil marched against Acre, the only remaining stronghold of the Christians. It fell, and death or slavery was the lot of sixty thousand Christians. Such were the expiring efforts of that wild but noble enthusiasm which had kindled Europe for two centuries. The era of the crusades was past.



## HISTORY OF RUSSIA.

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PERIOD IV.

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A BRIEF period of repose was enjoyed under the grandson of Yaroslav,

VLADIMIR II. (A.D. 1118—1125). He was the first Russian ruler who wore a crown. His golden tiara and sceptre are still preserved in the Kremlin at Moscow. After his death the supreme authority was reduced to a name, and the royal domain dwindled to the immediate vicinity of Kief. The country seemed to invite the approach of an invader, and it was not long before one arose. The son of Zenghis Khan, the founder of the Mogul empire, pursuing his father's tide of victory, defeated the princes of Galisch and Kief in a great battle, at the mouth of the Don (A.D. 1223); and his successor, Bati, advanced further still, carrying fire and sword to Vladimir, the grand duke of which fell into their hands, while the town was burnt to the ground. Not a single Russian escaped the massacre. Kief was next taken and reduced to ashes, and the invaders then established themselves at Sarai (now Saratoff), on the banks of the Volga, under the title of the Golden Horde. Two centuries of bondage followed; and yet the Mogul domination was not an unmixed evil. It evoked

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a national unity, and helped to extinguish the feuds of the princes. A temporary gleam of lustre plays around the name of Alexander, prince of Novgorod, who, heading the forces of that still wealthy republic against a confederacy of Swedes, Danes, and the Livonian "Knights of the Sword," vanquished their combined armies in a great battle on the banks of the Neva (A.D. 1244). He was never able, however, to organise a national effort for emancipation.

Livonia had been evangelized by missionaries from Germany, and its first bishop built Riga, and established the order referred to (A.D. 1201). The Pope gave them all the lands they could conquer, and Livonia was the fruit of their exploits. After a time they formed an alliance with the Teutonic order, and were powerful till the close of the century.

## HISTORY OF THE EASTERN EMPIRE.

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PERIOD IV.

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WE have seen that the Turks had already, in the time of Alexius Comnenus, advanced to the Hellespont, but by his vigilance and valour they were driven back, and the cities of Ephesus, Smyrna, Sardis, Philadelphia, and Laodicea, restored to the empire. The first crusade prevented rather than hastened the fall of the declining empire, for the Turkish emirs of Asia Minor were recalled to the standard of the sultan, and Alexius took advantage of their absence to secure Nice, and even Tarsus. He died A.D. 1118, and was succeeded by his son

JOHN II. (Comnenus). He wounded himself in the hand with a poisoned arrow while hunting, and refusing amputation died (A.D. 1143). His son

MANUEL COMNENUS succeeded, in whose time the second crusade advanced to the East. He was a perfidious prince, poisoned the provisions supplied to Conrad's army, betrayed his designs to the Turks, and thus accomplished the failure of the whole enterprise. He died, after a turbulent reign, A.D. 1180, and

ALEXIUS II. was acknowledged, but his throne was subverted by his cousin

ANDRONICUS I., who in the year 1183 strangled the

emperor, and assumed the reigns of government, marrying Agnes, sister of Philip II. of France, the betrothed of the late emperor. His barbarity and tyranny were so great that a revolution ensued, and

ISAAC II. (Angelus), a descendant in the female line of Alexius I., was proclaimed by the people (A.D. 1185). Andronicus was given up to his enemies, and tortured to death. With him ended the imperial line of the Comneni at Constantinople. The vices of Isaac led to his dethronement by his brother

ALEXIUS III. (A.D. 1195). Meanwhile, the Latins who had come eastward, with the ostensible purpose of driving the Moslems from Palestine, instead of restoring the conquered lands to the Eastern empire, after wresting them from the infidels, erected petty principalities for themselves, and many of them took up their abode in Constantinople itself, and constantly fomented divisions under the plea that, as Romans, their rights ought to be acknowledged in the Byzantine remnant of their ancient empire. Alexius succeeded for a time in expelling them from the capital. They, however, recovered a footing, drove out the usurper, and restored the mutilated Isaac (A.D. 1203), who, being blind, left the affairs of government to his son

ALEXIUS IV. (A.D. 1204). So heavy were the taxes he was obliged to levy, that a general discontent spread among the Greeks, and under the leadership of another

ALEXIUS V. (A.D. 1204), the people rose. The young emperor and his father were put to death. The Latins then swore revenge against the perfidious nation

who had crowned the assassin, and brought over the Venetian and French crusaders, who were encamped in the neighbourhood, under Baldwin, earl of Flanders, to aid them in an assault upon the city. In three months they were in full possession of the place, and declared

BALDWIN emperor (A.D. 1204). The French and Venetians then proceeded to divide their possessions. One-fourth only was appropriated to the domain of the Latin emperor; one-half fell to the share of Venice; and the remaining fourth was distributed among the adventurers of France and Lombardy. Boniface, marquis of Montferrat, became king of Thessalonica. But it was not likely that the Greeks would tamely submit to the rule of strangers. The duke of Bulgaria revolted, and promised assistance to those who were willing to rise up against their conquerors. A terrible massacre of the Latins ensued, and Baldwin was taken prisoner, and died in the prisons of Bulgaria. His brother

HENRY (A.D. 1206) succeeded. Boniface, who had advanced to revenge Baldwin, was slain by the Bulgarians, but peace then ensued. Henry died in the year 1216, and leaving no son, the male line of the counts of Flanders was extinct. His brother-in-law

PETER OF COURTENAY, count of Auxerre, was invited to assume the purple, but on his way was arrested by the despot of Epirus, and died in captivity (A.D. 1217—1219). His son

ROBERT was called to the throne (A.D. 1221—1228), and on his death, his younger brother Baldwin being still a child,

JOHN OF BRIENNE, titular king of Jerusalem, was chosen by the barons, but played an unimportant part in the East. He died in the year 1237, and

BALDWIN II., the last and most unfortunate of the Latin princes of Constantinople, then succeeded to the imperial dignity. Meanwhile, a Greek hero, named

THEODORE LASCARIS, had drawn to his standard the bold spirits who refused the Latin yoke, established his residence at Nice, and there revived the Greek empire (A.D. 1206—1222). His successor was his son-in-law

JOHN VATACES, who reigned triumphantly for thirty-three years (A.D. 1222—1255). His death, then the short reign of his son

THEODORE II. (A.D. 1255—1259), and the helpless infancy of his grandson

JOHN IV. (A.D. 1259—1260), suspended the restoration of the Greeks. The guardian of John IV. was Michael Palæologus, the most illustrious of the Greek nobles; and it was agreed that the young prince should share the throne with him. The adherents, however, of the powerful

MICHAEL caused him to be crowned alone (A.D. 1260). His first resolve was to expel the Latins from Constantinople. The Greek army surprised the city by night, and were masters of the capital before the Latins were conscious of their danger. Baldwin fled, and Michael made a triumphant entry. He prudently conciliated the Venetians, encouraged their industry, and confirmed their privileges. He endeavoured to re-unite the Greek and Latin Churches by an edict,

but he was excommunicated by the Pope, who thought him a dissembler. The most formidable of the Western powers who threatened the throne of Michael was the king of the Two Sicilies, Charles, count of Anjou ; but the emperor skilfully fomented the conspiracy which led to the Sicilian vespers, and thus saved his empire. He died A.D. 1282, and was succeeded by

ANDRONICUS II., whose long reign is chiefly memorable for the rise of the Ottoman power.

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## HISTORY OF ITALY.

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PERIOD IV.

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WE have seen that the end of Period III. was marked by two great events in Italian history; the struggle between the empire and the papacy for ecclesiastical investitures, and the establishment of the Norman kingdom of the Two Sicilies. A third event of immense importance comes more strictly before us during the course of Period IV., viz.—the formation of distinct and nearly independent republics among the cities of Lombardy. Of these Milan was the most conspicuous for her power, population, ambition, and tyranny. In the year 1111 the Milanese razed the town of Lodi to the ground, and in 1118 commenced a war of ten years' duration with Como. The municipal government of the Lombard cities was chiefly in the hands of superior families; it was their sagacious policy to invite settlers by throwing open to them the privileges of citizenship, and thus the towns of Milan, Pavia, Venice, Genoa, Pisa, &c., contained a population far larger than that of the great capitals of Europe. Artisans rose to positions of importance, and were classed in companies, each of which had its tribune or standard bearer, at whose command they took up arms against any enemy who threatened their inde-



pendence. Such was the condition of Italy when Frederic Barbarossa ascended the throne of Germany. To him the self-government of the Lombard cities appeared mere rebellion, and his attempts to strip them of their liberties kindled a war. Milan was the first to take up arms, and after a valiant resistance it fell (A.D. 1162), and all its fine old Norman buildings were destroyed. The military governors (PODESTAS) placed by the emperor over the Italian towns fanned the flame of revolt by their oppression; and in the year 1167 twenty-three cities united themselves in a conspiracy, known as THE LEAGUE OF LOMBARDY, for mutual protection and assistance. Their first operation was the rebuilding of Milan, which was soon in a position to defy the emperor, who for nine years wasted Northern Italy with fire and sword. At length the battle of LEGNANO, in which Barbarossa narrowly escaped with his life, decided the fate of Italy; and by the PEACE OF CONSTANCE (A.D. 1183) he was forced to acknowledge the rights of the republics to govern themselves, levy their own troops, and preserve their league. The emperor's ambition was diverted to a new scheme—the aggrandizement of the House of Swabia by the marriage of his eldest son Henry with Constance, the aunt and heiress of William II., king of Sicily. This was accomplished in the year 1186, and three years afterwards he succeeded to that throne, but was opposed by a party of Norman barons, who strove to preserve the crown for an illegitimate branch of the royal family. The power of the House of Swabia was then at its zenith on each side of the Alps, but the premature death of Henry clouded the

prospects of his family. Meanwhile, Venice and Florence had a history of their own. The glory of the former began with the crusades. Her position was favorable for commerce, and the hire of vessels to carry the crusaders to Palestine filled her coffers with gold. Her merchants, like those of Tyre, became princes, and her city was the queen of the Adriatic. Her rival Genoa rose rapidly from similar causes, though her territory never equalled in extent that of Venice, which included Istria, and Dalmatia, afterwards the Ionian Isles, the Morea, and Candia. Florence was originally a colony of Roman soldiers. At the opening of the twelfth century it was included in the dominions of the countess Matilda, and became strongly attached to the popedom. Subsequently we find Florence at the head of the Guelphic league, organized by Pope Innocent III., while Pisa headed the Ghibelline cities. The strength of the state was a commercial one; and even the nobility were enrolled on the register of some trade. Dante, who was born towards the end of this period, belonged to the Guild of Apothecaries.

Turning from these great cities of Venice and Florence to Rome herself, we find that during the era of the crusades the popedom was in full strength and splendour, but in constant conflict with the empire. The great Hildebrand had passed away before Peter the Hermit proclaimed the first crusade, but Innocent III. was a yet mightier occupant of the papal throne (A.D. 1198). It was he who laid England under an interdict during the reign of John; and another signal triumph was won when, by the Latin conquest of

Constantinople, the Greek Church was subjected to the Roman. For a brief period Rome ruled in the East. The patriarch of Constantinople sank into the vassal, and attended the councils of the Roman pontiff.

The especial work and crime, however, of Innocent III. was his inhuman persecution of the Albigenses. In the year 1215 he convoked the fourth general council of the Lateran, at which the celebrated orders of St. Dominic and St. Francis were confirmed.

Honorius III. was the successor of Innocent, and performed the coronation of Frederic II., but he was frequently at variance with the nobles, who repeatedly drove him from the capital. Gregory IX. (A.D. 1227) was the excommunicator of Frederick. In the year 1245 red hats were for the first time presented to cardinals. He sent a bishop to Theodore Lascaris with the hope of re-uniting the Greek and Latin Churches, but without effect. His successors were not men remarkable for learning and ability; and we may trace the signs of decay in the papal power even before the end of the thirteenth century.

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## HISTORY OF THE TURKS.

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### PERIOD IV.

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ON the death of Malek Shah, his vacant throne was disputed by his brother and four sons. This led to four dynasties of Turkish origin, who ruled respectively in Persia, Kerman, Syria, and Asia Minor. The latter was by far the most important: the establishment of the Turks in the vicinity of Constantinople was the greatest loss which the Eastern empire had sustained.

The kingdom of Soliman the sultan extended from the Euphrates to Constantinople. Nice was his palace and fortress, and the divinity of Christ was denied and derided in the same temple in which it had been pronounced by the first general synod of the Church. It was not long before Soliman possessed himself of Jerusalem. The Mahometans usurped three-fourths of the city, but left the Christians undisturbed in their occupation of the remaining portion. It was reserved for Hakem, the third of the Fatimite caliphs of Egypt, to demolish the church of the Sepulchre (A.D. 1009), and style himself the visible image of the Most High God. After his assassination a free toleration was again granted by succeeding caliphs. The Holy Sepulchre rose from its ruins, and the pilgrims

once more flocked to the sacred spot. These Fatimite caliphs were attacked by the Turks, who conquered Syria and the Holy Land during the reign of Malek Shah, and gave the command of the holy city to a Turkish emir. The Christians had good reason to deplore such a revolution, and it was the report of their sufferings which excited the millions of the West to march to the relief of the Holy Land. Several memorable victories were gained by the first crusaders in Syria. At the siege of Antioch alone the Turkish loss is said to have been five hundred thousand. We cannot, however, consider that the progress of the Turkish power was permanently retarded by the crusades. The Christian principalities were small and feeble; the whole of their militia could not exceed eleven thousand men, a slender defence against the surrounding myriads of Saracens and Turks.

The most distinguished of the emirs during the twelfth century was ZENGI, the governor of Aleppo, which he erected into an independent principality (A.D. 1127). He recovered from the Franks their conquests beyond the Euphrates, and took the city of Edessa. His son NOUREDDIN gradually united the Mahometan powers, and waged a long and successful war with the Christians of Syria. This was the signal for the second crusade, which proved so disastrous a failure. Nouredin next deposed the Fatimite dynasty in Egypt, and placed an emir belonging to the rival house of the Abbassides at the head of affairs. The nephew of this emir was the grand vizier Saladin, who, on the death of the sultan Nouredin, became the leading Saracen ruler; and not

content with the possession of Egypt, took Jerusalem from the Christians, and captured Damascus and Aleppo. The mosque of Omar, which had been converted into a church, was again consecrated to Mahometan worship (A.D. 1187). Europe flew to arms, and the siege and fall of Acre rewarded the crusaders. At Ascalon Richard I. defeated Saladin, and then obtained a memorable truce (A.D. 1192). The great sultan died in the following year, and the unity of his empire was dissolved. The fourth and fifth crusades ensued, the latter of which was diverted from its object, as we have seen.

Meanwhile, in the far East a great conqueror had arisen, of Turkish blood, generally known as ZINGIS KHAN ("The most great ruler"). He established the great Mogul empire, which extended from the Ganges to the Dnieper. With his last breath he exhorted his sons to achieve the conquest of China (A.D. 1227); and during the sixty-eight years of his four first successors almost all Asia, and a large portion of Europe, was subdued. But weakness characterized the sub-division of power; the Chinese revolted, and threw off the yoke; the khans of Persia and of Russia became independent; and the decline of the Moguls gave a free scope to the rise and progress of the Ottoman empire.

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## HISTORY OF ENGLAND.

### PERIOD IV.

See any History of England from A.D. 1096 to 1291.

## HISTORY OF FRANCE.

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PERIOD IV.

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See any History of France from A.D. 1096 to 1291.

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## HISTORY OF GERMANY.

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PERIOD IV.

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ON the death of Henry IV. (A.D. 1106), his son

HENRY V. succeeded, and still defied the popedom. Marching to Rome he made Pascal II. (the successor of Urban) his prisoner, till he consented to renounce the right of investiture. No sooner, however, had the Germans left Italy than the Pope renewed all his old demands. Peace was not restored till the year 1122, when, at the Diet of Worms, both parties agreed to a compromise, though the advantage rested decidedly with the papacy.

Henry died in 1125, and with him ended the male line of the House of Franconia.

LOTHAIRE, duke of Saxony, was elected by the Diet, but met with powerful opponents in the Swabian princes—Frederick and Conrad of Hohenstaufen. (The former was married to the sister of the late emperor Henry V.) He found, however, a friend and ally in Henry the Haughty, duke of Bavaria, of the

House of Welf, who married his daughter Gertrude. Lothaire cringed before the Pope, and consented to hold his crown as a vassal of the Holy See. He died suddenly in 1137; and the empire then became divided into two parties, the Guelphs and the Ghibellines. The former were the adherents of Henry the Haughty, whose family name was Welf or Guelph; the latter were the supporters of the Hohenstaufen family, one of whose leaders—Frederick—was born at the castle of Wibelung. A violent contest ensued, and

CONRAD III. of Swabia was elected, to the great disappointment of Henry, who, as sole heir of the late emperor, had naturally expected to succeed him. The crown jewels were in his possession. Conrad, jealous of his rival's power, called upon him to resign the Duchy of Saxony. On this, he renounced his allegiance, and war ensued. The Pope sided with the Guelphs; the cities were chiefly Ghibelline. On the death of Henry, Conrad restored Saxony to his son Henry the Lion; that portion of it known as the Margraviate of Brandenburg being retained by Albert the Bear, who thus laid the foundation of the great House of Prussia. In his time we first hear of Berlin. It was during the reign of Conrad, that the preaching of St. Bernard re-kindled the martial zeal of Christendom, and a second crusade started for the East. Conrad joined Louis VII. of France, and contributed seventy thousand men to the undertaking. It proved a miserable failure, and the emperor returned home to die (A.D. 1152). His celebrated nephew

FREDERICK BARBAROSSA was chosen by the Diet as



his successor, and proved a mighty monarch. Anxious to heal the differences between the Guelphs and the Ghibellines, he bestowed on Henry the Lion, his cousin and personal friend, the Duchy of Bavaria in addition to that of Saxony, and thus he became the most powerful prince in Germany. Austria was made a separate Duchy, hereditary in the female as well as in the male line. In the year 1155 Frederick appeared in Italy, to assert imperial rights, and receive the imperial crown from the hands of Adrian. While there, deputies from the Lombard city of Lodi implored his aid against the Milanese, by whom they were cruelly oppressed. He soon taught the Lombards the power of his arm, and assumed their iron crown at Pavia; but the spirit of Italian freedom soon revived, and a league was formed to maintain their liberties. The strife between Guelphs and Ghibellines was thus renewed, for the Pope favoured the Lombards and opposed the emperor. The fight lasted long, and was bravely fought on both sides. In 1162 Milan fell, and the league seemed broken up; but rebuilding their city, the Italians knit themselves more closely together. Rome now welcomed, and now withstood Frederick, and Pope after Pope was set up. But the Guelphs finally triumphed. The imperial forces were defeated at Legnano (A.D. 1175), and at Venice the emperor prostrated himself before the rival Pope (Alexander), and made his peace with the Church.\* But it was a hero who thus yielded, and signed the peace of Constance, which granted freedom to the Italian cities. Hoping to establish in the

\* See "The Papal Drama," by T. H. Gill, page 70.

South an influence which should overawe the Pope, he gave his eldest son in marriage to Constance, heiress presumptive of the kingdom of Naples and Sicily. The Pope saw the danger, and excommunicated the bishops who performed the ceremony. But fresh tidings from the East diverted the attention of all parties; and though seventy years of age, Frederick caught the enthusiasm of Europe, and determined to rescue Jerusalem from the hands of the great Saladin. As his army was crossing a river in Cilicia, he dashed in on horseback and was drowned. He was buried in Antioch; his son Frederick of Swabia remained with the dispirited troops, but died of the plague shortly afterwards. During this reign Henry the Lion founded Munich. He offended the emperor by deserting him in the midst of his struggle with the Lombards, and thus fell under the ban of the empire, and lost his duchies. After fighting in vain in their defence, he craved for forgiveness, but it was too late. He only retained Brunswick and Limburg. He married Maud Plantagenet, daughter of Henry II. of England, and from his son William the present royal family of England is descended.

HENRY II. succeeded his father Frederick Barbarossa in the year 1190.

Tancred, an illegitimate relation of the empress Constance, having usurped the throne of Naples, Henry marched into Italy; and was crowned at Rome; but pestilence broke out in his army, and raising the siege of Naples he went home, leaving his wife a prisoner in the hands of the enemy. Tancred, however, died A.D. 1194, and the emperor then entered Palermo in

triumph, and added the crown of the Two Sicilies to those of Germany, Burgundy, Lombardy, and the Roman empire, which he already wore. He proved a ferocious and cruel tyrant. From motives of personal ambition he prepared a fourth crusade, but was poisoned at Messina (A.D. 1198), in the midst of his overbearing career. During his reign the Teutonic order of Knights took its rise. They wore white mantles, with a black cross upon the shoulder. The son of Henry VI. being an infant, his brother

PHILIP was elected by the Ghibellines, but the Guelphs chose

OTHO IV., son of Henry the Lion. These rival emperors carried on war with each other for ten years, during which the whole country was a scene of anarchy and confusion. In the year 1208 Philip was assassinated, and Otho thus became sole emperor. In the hope of conciliating the Ghibellines, he married the daughter of his late rival, and made concessions to the Pope. The latter in delight placed the crown on his head; but the Roman populace rose, and expelled the emperor from their city. Otho, irritated by these insults withdrew his concessions, and was thereupon excommunicated, while Innocent III. called upon the German princes to elect (A.D. 1212)

FREDERICK II., grandson of Barbarossa. Otho gave up the contest, and died in private life (A.D. 1218). Innocent III. had passed away when Frederick became firmly seated on the throne, and the new Pope, Honorius III., proved his enemy. For his delay in fulfilling his vow of starting on a new crusade, he was excommunicated. In the following year, he

embarked for Palestine, and obtained from the sultan of Egypt the restitution of Jerusalem, Bethlehem, Tyre, and Sidon. Entering the Holy City in triumph, the emperor took the crown from the altar of the Holy Sepulchre, and placed it on his own head, but granted religious freedom to the Moslems. After spending many years in Apulia, he was recalled to Germany by the rebellious conduct of his son Henry, who had endeavoured to usurp the throne. He submitted to his father, but afterwards attempting to poison him, was imprisoned in Calabria and there died. In the year 1237 a fresh Lombard league attracted the emperor's attention, but he defeated the Milanese at Cortenuova, and they were forced into submission. Frederick II. died in the year 1250.

His son

CONRAD IV. took the title of emperor, and was acknowledged by the Ghibellines, but the Guelphs elected William, count of Holland. The rivals fought at Oppenheim, and Conrad was defeated; soon after this he died, not without suspicion of poison (A.D. 1254), leaving an infant son, generally called Conrad the Younger, or

CONRADIN. In the year 1256 William of Holland fell, fighting against the Frisians, and the condition of Germany then became so degraded, that the crown was offered for sale to the highest bidder. The competitors were Richard of Cornwall, brother of Henry III. of England, and Alphonso X. of Castile, who were both elected at the same time. The former was crowned at Aix-la-Chapelle, but only visited Germany three times; the latter never appeared there at all.

Meanwhile, the Pope gave away the crown of the Two Sicilies to Charles of Anjou, thus setting aside the claims of Conradin, and of Manfred, the illegitimate son of Frederick II. The latter took up arms, and fell at the battle of Benevento. Conradin, being then invited by the Ghibelline party to assume his lawful crown, entered Italy at the head of ten thousand men, and was at first successful, but falling into an ambuscade, was utterly routed (A.D. 1268), and basely betrayed into the hands of Charles, who put him to death. A period of anarchy and confusion ensued in Germany; there was no supreme government; the laws were disregarded; every castle was filled with banditti, and every petty prince was a captain of robbers. The duchies of Saxony and Bavaria were now divided into a number of small fiefs, which were bestowed on vassals, who styled themselves princes of the empire, and each of whom was a sovereign. Meanwhile, the crusades had given a powerful impetus to trade, and the towns had risen to a position of importance. Seventy of these, on each side of the Rhine, united in a confederation for mutual defence against the tyrannical power of the feudal lords. It was called the LEAGUE OF THE RHINE; but the greatest commercial confederation of the Middle Ages was that known as the HANSEATIC LEAGUE. Its fleets ruled the Northern Ocean, conquered entire provinces, and reduced powerful nobles, and even sovereigns, to submission. All parties at length began to desire an emperor, and the Pope threatened to appoint one of his own if the electors delayed their choice. The Diet consequently assembled, and

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RODOLPH OF HAPSBURG was crowned at Aix-la-Chapelle (A.D. 1273). His first object was to bring the neglected laws into force, and put down the disorders which were distracting the Fatherland. His plans were, however, delayed by a war with Ottocar, king of Bohemia, who refused to do homage for his lands, which included Austria, Styria, Carinthia, and Carniola. In the year 1278 the battle of Marchfield, on the right bank of the Danube, decided the contest. Ottocar was slain, and all his lands, except Bohemia itself, became a part of the empire. Rodolph then directed all his attention to the administration of justice, destroying the castles of the robber knights, and granting charters to large cities.

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## HISTORY OF SPAIN.

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PERIOD IV.

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TOWARDS the end of the eleventh century the Moors began to tremble for the safety of their possessions in Spain, and sent to ask assistance of the ALMORAVIDES, a tribe of Arabs who had recently founded the empire of Morocco. Their prince YUSSEF landed with a large army, and defeated ALFONSO VI., king of Castile (son of Ferdinand I.), in a terrible battle at Zalaca (A.D. 1086), regaining some of the places which had been lost to the Moors. Yussef, however, proved a treacherous ally, for he dethroned the reigning king (Mohammed), and sent him in chains to Africa. The dynasty of the Almoravides, or Morabethes ("Men united in faith") held sway until the year 1146, when the ALMOHADES, or Mowahuddins ("Worshippers of the only true God") took Morocco by storm; and landing in Spain, captured Xeres, and substituted their own Saracen power for that of their rivals. They held sway until the year 1236, but never recovered the effects of a severe defeat at Tolosa in 1211, by the united forces of Castile, Aragon, and Navarre. In 1236 FERDINAND III. of Castile, called "The Saint," bursting into Andalusia, took its great capital, Cordova, not less ennobled by the cultivation of Arabian

sciences than by the splendid works of a rich and munificent dynasty. Every Moor was compelled to leave the city, which was re-peopled from the South of France, and the great mosque was turned into a cathedral.

In this time of distress ALAHMAR, a Moorish prince, gained the confidence of his nation, and by his military talents and political conduct formed GRANADA into an independent kingdom, which thus became the stronghold of the Moors in Spain, and survived the other Mahometan states two centuries and a half. Alahmar applied himself with energy to the internal improvement of his kingdom, which soon became as renowned as that of Cordova had once been, for its commerce, arts, and manufactures. The far-famed buildings of the Alhambra, the strong fortress and palace of Granada, were begun by him. He was wise enough to make peace with Ferdinand, whose career of conquest was unchecked. SEVILLE was besieged, and surrendered on easy terms. JAEN was ceded by Alahmar as a pledge of fidelity, and thus the whole valley of the Guadalquivir fell under the kingdom of Castile.

In the meantime, JAMES I. of Aragon, generally called "The Conqueror," reduced the city and kingdom of Valencia, the Balearic Isles, and the kingdom of Murcia; but the latter was annexed, according to compact, to the crown of Castile. In the year 1252 Ferdinand III. died. His daughter Eleanor was the celebrated wife of Edward I. He was succeeded by Alphonso X., "The Learned." He completed the body of laws begun by his father, translated the Bible



into Castilian Spanish, and drew up a set of astronomical tables. In the year 1257 he aspired to the empire of Germany, and expended vast sums in order to procure his election. But his claims were regarded with coolness; he was owned only by an insignificant party, the choice of the majority falling on Rodolph of Hapsburg (A.D. 1273).

In the year 1278 James of Aragon died, leaving his son PEDRO III. in possession of all his dominions, except the Balearic Isles, which were formed into a separate kingdom, and given to his younger son James.

About this time the throne of Navarre was joined to that of France by the marriage of queen Jane to Philip IV. Pedro III. of Aragon married Constance, daughter of Manfred, who had usurped the kingdom of the Two Sicilies to the prejudice of Conradin, his nephew. On Manfred's death, at the battle of Beneventum, Charles of Anjou seized the throne, and caused Conradin to be executed. Similar cruelties drew upon him the odium of his new subjects, and the massacre known as the Sicilian Vespers was the result (A.D. 1282).

The Aragonese fleet accordingly entered the harbour of Palermo, and Pedro III. was proclaimed king with great acclamations. The Pope immediately excommunicated the Sicilians and their new king, and laid Aragon under an interdict. But Pedro set this at defiance, and his fleet, commanded by De Lauria, the most famous admiral of the day, defeated the combined navies of France and Naples, and took Charles prisoner, who sank under a fever brought on by agitation of mind (A.D. 1285).

Pedro did not long survive him. He died the same year, leaving the throne of Aragon to his son

ALPHONSO III., and that of Sicily to James, then residing with his mother in the island; but the death of Alphonso at Barcelona (A.D. 1291), whither he had proceeded to meet his intended bride, the daughter of Edward I., left

JAMES II. the throne of Aragon. The Sicilians would not allow him to retain that of Sicily at the same time, and elected in his stead his younger brother Frederick.

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## PERIOD V.

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*From the End of the Crusades A.D. 1291, to Taking of  
Constantinople A.D. 1453.*

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### HISTORY OF THE EASTERN EMPIRE.

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#### PERIOD V.

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THE reign of ANDRONICUS was disturbed by dissensions in his family. His grandson, generally known as ANDRONICUS the Younger, rebelled against the emperor, who at length abdicated the throne, and assumed the monastic habit. The reign of the grandson was inglorious, and the Turks continued their advances. His son JOHN PALÆOLOGUS succeeded, and had the mortification of seeing his empire gradually diminish. The Turks overran Thrace, obtained possession of Adrianople, reduced Thessaly, Macedon, and the Peloponnesus, so that at last nothing remained to the Eastern emperor but the district round Constantinople. John and his sons were compelled to attend as vassals at the Ottoman court, and to pay a yearly tribute. He was, in fact, a helpless spectator of the ruin of his empire. His death in the year 1391, left

his son MANUEL II. in possession of the throne. The Moslem sultan now invested Constantinople both by land and sea ; and the fatal moment would have come, had not the great Tamerlane just at that juncture turned his arms against the Ottoman state ; and consequently the sultan raised the siege, and for fifty years the fall of the Eastern capital was delayed. Manuel then visited Western Europe, and was received by Charles VI. in France, and Henry IV. in England, with great honour, but they were unable to afford him military succour. His son

JOHN II. (A.D. 1425) resumed the design of uniting the Eastern and Western Churches, and in the year 1438 the representatives of both met in the cathedral of Florence and vowed eternal friendship. It was, however, baseless and perfidious, and no sooner did the emperor land on the Byzantine shore than a general murmur of discontent arose. Meanwhile, his old enemies pressed on, and hemmed him in on every side. He was compelled to promise an annual tribute of vast amount to the sultan, and to yield to him several fortified places on the Euxine. He died A.D. 1448, and was succeeded by his brother Constantine XII. At that time Mahomet II. was sultan of the Turks, and he had secretly sworn to obtain possession of Constantinople. To accomplish his design he built two forts, one on the European and the other on the Asiatic side of the Bosphorus, to command the straits, filling them with strong garrisons. The siege commenced in April, A.D. 1453. The Turkish troops amounted to two hundred and fifty-eight thousand, while the Greek garrison numbered only eight thou-

sand soldiers, and these were mostly Latins. Constantine himself fought nobly to the last, and for many hours struck terror into the Turks by his extraordinary exertions. Numbers, however, at length overpowered the heroic Cæsar, and amidst the tumult he fell by an unknown hand, and was buried under a mountain of slain. After a siege of fifty-three days the capital of the East fell, and the work of rapine began. Mahomet made a triumphant entry into the city, and declared it the seat of the Turkish empire. The church of St. Sophia was transformed into a mosque, and surrounded with groves and fountains for the devotion and refreshment of the Moslems. The crescent displaced the cross; and where Constantine the Great had reigned, lived, and died, a stranger in blood, religion, and character, trampled on every vestige of former magnificence.

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## HISTORY OF THE TURKS.

## PERIOD V.

THE loose masses of mankind that overspread the vast central regions of Asia have, at various times, either by necessity or through the rise of some commanding genius, been impelled forward upon the domains of civilization. Two principal roads connect the nations of Tartary with those of the West and South; the one along the northern coast of the Euxine, the other across Persia in a more southerly direction.

The first of these great Scythian hordes was that of the fourth century; the second, that of the Huns in the tenth; the third, that of the Moguls in the thirteenth, which as we have seen destroyed Persia, and laid Russia prostrate; the fourth is the one which occupies so prominent a place in this period—the advance of TAMERLANE, who after subduing the petty princes of Persia and Turkestan, pushed on into Syria, where he defeated the Mamelukes, and reduced Aleppo and Damascus to ashes (A.D. 1399—1402). About a century before this event, an obscure Turk named

OTHMAN had invaded Nicomedia, while his son

ORCHAN became the conqueror of Prusa, from the

capture of which city we may date the rise of the Ottoman empire. Almost without resistance Orchan penetrated to the Hellespont, and thus all Bithynia fell under his sway. His son

SOLIMAN was entertained as a friend by the Greek emperor, but he insensibly filled the Chersonesus with a Turkish colony, and might have completed his father's designs, but he was killed by a fall from his horse, and his brother (A.D. 1360)

AMURATH I. succeeded to his power and his success. He subdued the whole of Thrace, and chose Adrianople for his capital. John Palæologus, the Eastern emperor, was almost in the position of a subject prince, and was hemmed in on all sides by Turkish foes. Amurath selected for his use the strongest and most beautiful of the Christian youths who became his prisoners, and formed them into a militia called JANIZARIES, or "New Soldiers." He was not safe, however, from the dagger of the assassin, and perished by an unknown hand. His son

BAJAZET (A.D. 1389—1403) continued his career of conquest. Iconium received an Ottoman ruler. Macedonia and Thessaly were added to the already conquered Thrace. His predecessors had been content with the title of Emir, but he adopted that of Sultan, and inflamed by ambition he turned his arms against the kingdom of Hungary. The cause of its king, Sigismund, was that of Europe and of the Church, and many gallant knights came to the rescue; but at the battle of Nicopolis (A.D. 1396) they were defeated, and numbers perished in the Danube. It was after this victory that Bajazet threatened Con-

stantinople, but was recalled to the East by the advance of the great Tamerlane, who had announced his resolution of marching against the Ottoman emperor, and had crossed the Halys and invested Angora. The plains around that city were the scene of a memorable battle, which has immortalized the glory of Timour, and the shame of Bajazet (A.D. 1402). The result was the fall of the kingdom of Anatolia, with its capital Smyrna, into the hands of the Eastern conqueror, who might have spread terror into Western Europe, but that he had no fleet; and the two passages of the Bosphorus and Hellespont were possessed by the Greeks and the Turks, who now joined against their common foe.

Meanwhile that foe had formed the design of invading China, and dying in the execution of his design, the West was spared. His glory perished with him. A fragment only of his vast army was upheld by his sons, and his race would have been extinct if a remote descendant had not conquered Hindostan, and established once more a Mogul empire. Very different was the fate of the Ottoman monarchy. When Timour evacuated Anatolia, a civil war broke out between the five sons of Bajazet, but after a protracted struggle

MAHOMET I. was universally acknowledged (A.D. 1403). His son

AMURATH II. resumed the ambitious schemes of his predecessors, and laid siege to Constantinople (A.D. 1422); but he was recalled to Boursa (Prusa) by a domestic revolt, and the evil day was postponed. Manuel sank into the grave; and John Palæologus II.,



after a disturbed reign, was succeeded by his brother Constantine; while the sceptre of Amurath passed to his son MAHOMET II., destined to achieve what so many had attempted—the conquest of Constantinople. Constantine strove by gifts and flattery to assuage his enemy's wrath; but the prize in view was too tempting for Turkish ambition, and in the following spring the siege was begun.

Against the overwhelming numbers of the Turks, only a garrison of eight thousand could be mustered to defend the city. On the land side was a double wall extending for six miles, and the heroic emperor himself undertook its defence, and fell fighting bravely for his throne and his people. After a siege of fifty-three days Constantinople fell, and the conqueror made a triumphal entry. The church of St. Sophia was converted into a mosque, and the desolate palace of the Cæsars was occupied by Mahomet.

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## HISTORY OF ITALY.

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PERIOD V.

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ITALY, at the opening of the fourteenth century, presented an aspect of the greatest prosperity. The towns had made considerable progress in the arts and sciences, and their cultivated districts formed a striking contrast to the lands which were still subject to the feudal lords. Pisa, however, was destined to lose her place and power among the Italian republics. A deep-rooted jealousy, to be dated from the conquest of Sardinia, subsisted between her and Genoa, and in the year 1282 war broke out between them. Doria, the first naval officer of the day, commanded the Genoese, and the result was the overthrow of the Pisan fleet. The latter lost her rank as a maritime power, and eventually became united to Florence. Meanwhile, Genoa was constantly at war with Venice, and, when needing assistance, placed herself under the protection of France. Louis XI., however, resolved to have nothing to do with so troublesome a dependency, and the republic passed under the sway of the duke of Milan (A.D. 1464). Florence grew great and rich, notwithstanding the feuds which constantly broke out in the city, where a democratical form of government had been established. About the

middle of the fourteenth century two prominent houses, those of the Albizzi and Ricci, became leaders of rival factions. The Guelph aristocracy, strong in opulence and antiquity, ranged themselves on the side of the former, and for fifty years retained the government in their own hands. But while crushing with severity their avowed adversaries, the ruling party had left one family untouched, whose popularity and wealth rendered it dangerous to meddle with them. This was the great family of the MEDICI, who belonged to the new or plebeian nobility, and who were viewed by the popular party as their consolation and their hope. That house was represented at the end of the century by Giovanni, a merchant, whose vast wealth was expended with liberality and magnificence. He was mild and conciliatory, averse to cabals, and consequently never came into collision with those from whose principles he differed ; but his son Cosmo, with more ambition, and less prudence than his father, thought it time to avail himself of the popularity belonging to his name. He aggravated the errors of the government, and became their victim. He was imprisoned and exiled, but Florence was full of his friends ; and in the following year he was recalled in triumph to Florence, and the Albizzi were completely overthrown. Cosmo de Medici continued to guide all political movements till his death (A.D. 1464), when the words "Father of his country" were graven on his tomb.

Passing from Florence to Rome, we find that during the seventy years spent by the Popes at Avignon the Roman nobility were engaged in perpetual war with

each other. The contemptible feuds of the Orsini and Colonna families proved fatal to the monuments of antiquity and sacred buildings of the imperial city. In the midst of this wretchedness an obscure man, named RIENZI, conceived the project (A.D. 1347) of restoring Rome, not only to good order, but even to her ancient greatness. He suddenly excited an insurrection, and obtained complete success. He was placed at the head of a new government, with the title of tribune, and almost unlimited power. The court of Avignon temporised, and did not oppose. But this sudden exaltation intoxicated Rienzi. He had ruled Rome for seven months; his design was to unite all Italy into one great republic; but at last he assumed a style of pomp and grandeur which spoke of vanity and arrogance, and the nobles rose in arms against him. He possessed no military genius, and the degraded tribune hid himself in the castle of St. Angelo, whence he escaped, only to be given up to the Pope, who kept him in custody at Avignon. Two years later he was sent to Rome by Innocent VI., with the title of senator, with the idea that the Romans would gladly submit to their favorite tribune, but in four months his palace was burned, and he was stabbed to death at the base of the Capitol (A.D. 1354). Contemporaneous with Rienzi was

PETRARCH, the reviver of Greek literature in Italy, and Boccaccio, the father of Tuscan prose. The title of poet-laureate had not been used for thirteen centuries when it was bestowed on the former.

In the year 1377 Gregory XI. returned to Rome, and died there the following year, upon which a period of schism and distraction disgraced the papal annals.

The French elected one Pope, and the Italians another. Rome thundered against Avignon, and Avignon against Rome. The chief sovereigns of Europe fomented the discord; none were wise or powerful enough to heal the wounds, and control the disorders of the Church; and we cannot wonder that a thirst for reform was manifested in many quarters, and that men like Wycliffe, Huss, and Jerome of Prague, were the outgrowth of the popular feeling of contempt for the papacy. The schism was finally ended by the Council of Constance (A.D. 1418), who called Martin V. to the papal chair, and his authority was recognised throughout Christendom. His opposition to the Reformation in Bohemia led to the Hussite war; and, despairing to exterminate the heretics, the Pope convoked an assembly of the Church at Basle. He died just before the representatives met, and his successor Eugenius patched up a reconciliation with the Hussites. He was, however, deposed (A.D. 1449). Nicholas V. succeeded, and celebrated a jubilee at Rome just three years before the downfall of Constantinople.

Turning to the kingdom of the Two Sicilies, we find that many changes took place there during this Period. After the Sicilian vespers (A.D. 1282), a war of twenty years ensued. Peter of Aragon contested the crown with CHARLES II., the son of Charles of Anjou; and the result was the severance of the island from the throne of Naples, and its erection into an independent kingdom under Frederick II., younger son of Pedro III. (A.D. 1295). In the year 1305 Charles of Naples died, and his son ROBERT succeeded, in spite of the claims of his grandson in the direct line. The crown descended to his grand-daughter

JOANNA, who married her cousin Andrew of Hungary (see genealogy). He was mysteriously assassinated, and his brother Louis, king of Hungary, invaded Naples as the avenger of his death. The queen, who was suspected of this infamous deed, fled to Provence, where her acquittal was pronounced by Pope Clement VI. Joanna soon recovered her crown, and reigned for thirty years; but being childless, the succession began to excite ambitious speculations. Charles of Durazzo, who had married the queen's cousin, invaded the country, and by his order Joanna was smothered in prison (A.D. 1378), and the murderer mounted the throne as Charles III. He reaped as he had sown, and was the victim of the assassin. His infant son LADISLAUS became king, under the guardianship of his mother Margaret. When he advanced to manhood he proved himself bold and enterprising, and Rome itself became part of his spoil. For several years he occupied a great part of the papal territories, and was meditating an attack on the republic of Florence, when his death relieved Italy from the danger of a new tyranny. His sister, Joanna II., became queen of Naples; and having brought her dominions to the verge of ruin by weakness and incompetency, if not by vice, called to her assistance Alphonso V., now king of Aragon and Sicily, and adopted him as her son and successor; then, turning against him, she called in a French competitor of the House of Anjou (Louis, brother of Charles V.). On the death of Joanna, however, the rival of ALPHONSO yielded, and he thus united the crown of the Two Sicilies to that of Aragon.

## HOUSE OF ANJOU.

CHARLES I, 1266

x

1. BEATRIX, HEIRESS OF PROVENCE

2. MARGARET OF BURGUNDY

CHARLES II, 1285

x

MARIA, HEIRESS OF HUNGARY

CHARLES MARTEL

x

CLEMENCE OF HAPSBURG

ROBERT

x

IOLANDE OF ARAGON

JOHN

x

AGNES OF PERBIGORD

CHARLES ROBERT

x

BEATRIX OF LUXENBURG

CHARLES

x

MARIA OF VALOIS

CHARLES

x

MARIA OF NAPLES

LOUIS

x

MARGARET

LOUIS, KING OF HUNGARY

x

ANDREW

JOANNA, 1343

x

ANDREW

3. CHARLES DURAZZO, 1378

x

MARGARET

CHARLES DURAZZO

x

MARGARET

X signifies "married."

LADISLAUS, 1386

JOANNA II, 1414

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## HISTORY OF RUSSIA.

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### PERIOD V.

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DURING the whole of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries Russia groaned under Tartar oppression, and paid tribute to the descendants of Bati. But in her darkest night many Christian princes shone with a pure and holy lustre, as defenders of the faith, and lovers of their people. Among these we may mention the grand duke Michael of Novgorod (A.D. 1304). His claim was disputed by his ambitious and cruel nephew, George of Moscow, who fled to the court of the Great Khan, who lent him an army, with which he ravaged his uncle's dominions. Michael was a peaceful prince, and offered to share his power with George; but the latter refused to come to terms, and war ensued, which ended in favor of the former, who took the Tartar bride of his nephew prisoner, and treated her with the greatest kindness. His wicked nephew, however, on her decease, accused him of having poisoned her, and he was summoned to the frontiers of Tartary, and there cruelly put to death. His eldest son Demetrius, meeting George at the khan's court, stabbed the murderer to the heart, and was in his turn condemned to death by the khan. After much bloodshed and confusion, the dignity of grand



prince was bestowed on IVAN I., a younger brother of George, who established himself at Moscow, which henceforth became the centre and capital of Russia. One of his successors, DEMETRIUS (A.D. 1363), made a gallant attempt to throw off the Tartar yoke; and at KOULIKOFF, on the banks of the Don, won a great victory over them (A.D. 1380). Its anniversary is still celebrated in Russia, and called "The Saturday of Demetrius." A brighter day seemed to be dawning for Russia, when the waning glory of the Tartars revived in the person of Tamerlane. He advanced to Moscow, where BASIL, the son of Demetrius, was grand prince. The latter led his army towards the Don, but suddenly Tamerlane withdrew, to spend his force upon other foes: Azof was taken, and he then returned to his luxurious capital, Samarcand, pausing on his way to burn down Sarai, the chief city of the Golden Horde.

BASIL II., "The Blind," succeeded his father in the year 1425, and was the last grand prince who paid tribute to the Tartars. He sent Isidore, archbishop of Moscow, to take part in the Council of Florence, assembled to bring about a union between the Greek and Latin Churches. He received from the Pope a cardinal's hat, and the office of legate to the North. Returning to Moscow (A.D. 1440), he appeared in his new dress as papal legate; and instead of the usual form of prayer for the patriarchs of the Eastern Church, he inserted the name of the Pope, Eugenius IV. The grand prince rose, and sternly addressed Isidore, calling him a "faithless shepherd, and corrupter of souls." He was accused of having received

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a bribe from the Pope, and fled to Italy, where Eugenius bestowed upon him the empty title of "Primate of all the Russias."

Basil was taken prisoner by the Golden Horde, and ransomed by his people, but he died A.D. 1461, having lived to witness the downfall of Constantinople. In his reign we first hear of the Cossacks. They were independent tribes, dwelling near the Dnieper and the Don, and from thence spread over Poland and Siberia. They paid homage to a military chief, and were of great use in defending the Russian and Polish frontiers from the Turks and Tartars. In this reign also was introduced the well-known punishment by scourging, called the "knout," still practised in Russia. This barbarous custom was borrowed from the Tartars.

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## HISTORY OF SPAIN.

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PERIOD V.

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ALPHONSO of Castile was dethroned after a reign of thirty years by his rebellious son

SANCHO IV., and died in the year 1284. In 1295

FERDINAND IV. succeeded, but their reigns were unimportant.

ALPHONSO XI. (A.D. 1312) was one of the most powerful princes of his time. It was in his reign that earl Douglas, the friend and companion of Robert Bruce, came to the court of Castile, on his way to Palestine, with the heart of his deceased sovereign, which he had promised to bury in the Holy Land. Alphonso made a proposal to the Scottish warrior to join in an expedition against the Moors; to which he readily consented, and was killed in battle.

In the year 1326 Sardinia was added to the states of Aragon, after considerable opposition from the Pisans, who had held sway over the island. In the following year James II. died, and was succeeded by

ALPHONSO IV. About the same time the crown of Navarre again became independent, and descended in the person of Jane II., daughter of Louis X. The kingdom of Majorca was re-united to Aragon by

PEDRO IV., who succeeded his father Alphonso IV. in the year 1336. Alphonso XI. was still on the throne of Castile, and the threatening aspect of the Moors led to the union of all the Christian kingdoms against them.

The Moslems being in possession at that time of Gibraltar, four hundred thousand men came over from Africa, and a fleet of two hundred and fifty sail guarded the coast. The land forces of the opposing parties met near Tarifa, the river Salado running between their camps. Here the Christians, commanded by Alphonso XI., and Alphonso IV. of Portugal, won a complete victory (A.D. 1340); and, with the hope of driving the Moors entirely out of Spain, the Castilian king attacked Algesiras, one of their principal sea-ports, which after two years surrendered. The next ten years were passed in tranquillity, but in 1350 Alphonso made an attempt to drive out the African garrison from Gibraltar. He was, however, seized with the plague, and died. His son and successor was

Pedro, deservedly named "The Cruel." He put to death his wife Blanche of Bourbon, most of his half brothers and sisters, with their mother, Leonora Gusman, many Castilian nobles, and hundreds of Jews. He invited Abu Said, the new Moorish king, who had usurped the throne of Granada, to pay him a visit at Seville. Here he received him in the most friendly manner, and then stabbed him to the heart, with two hundred of the best knights of Granada.

At length his subjects rose in rebellion against such an unnatural tyrant, and were assisted by

Charles V. of France, who resolved to revenge the death of his sister-in-law Blanche of Bourbon. Henry of Trastamare, the illegitimate brother of Pedro, laid claim to the throne, and was assisted by Aragon, Portugal, and the famous constable Du Guesclin. Edward the Black Prince, then resident at Bordeaux, was induced by the promise of Biscay to enter Spain as the ally of Castile, and in the year 1367, at the battle of Navarette, Du Guesclin was made prisoner. Henry fled to Aragon, and Pedro remounted his throne. But a second revolution was at hand; the Black Prince whom he had ungratefully offended, withdrew into Guienne, and Pedro lost his kingdom and his life, in a second short contest with his brother at Montiel (A.D. 1369).

HENRY II. then mounted the throne, but his claim was disputed by the king of Portugal (his grandfather), and by John of Gaunt, who had married Pedro's eldest daughter Constantia. The kings of Navarre and of Aragon were also rivals, as being nearly related to the royal family of Castile. Ferdinand of Portugal was, however, too indolent to commence a struggle, which under an able prince might have led to the union of Spain and Portugal; and John of Gaunt was pacified by the marriage of his daughter Catharine to the grandson of Henry II. By force, or by bribes, Henry contrived to retain the crown until his death (A.D. 1379), and then his son

JOHN I. was crowned at Burgos. He married the Infanta of Portugal, and on the death of her father Ferdinand, claimed the crown of that kingdom in her right. But the Portuguese were determined to have a

native sovereign, and chose JOHN, grand master of the order of Avis. John of Castile assembled an army but was defeated at Aljubarrota, and thus Portugal remained a separate kingdom. For half a century Pedro IV. had been reigning in Aragon, with insatiable but fruitless ambition. He died in the year 1386, and

JOHN I. succeeded. His court was the resort of poets and men of letters, but he was killed (A.D. 1401) while hunting a wolf. The three Johns, of Aragon, Castile, and Portugal, were contemporaries. John of Castile died (A.D. 1390) from a fall from his horse during a review, and

HENRY III., surnamed "The Invalid," succeeded; his reign ended in the year 1407. John I. of Aragon was followed on the throne by his brother MARTIN, who, dying in 1412, was succeeded by his nephew

FERDINAND I., brother of Henry III. of Castile. The latter monarch had left an infant,

JOHN II., and consequently the evils of a long minority were dreaded; but the queen-mother, Catharine, daughter of John of Gaunt, and the disinterested Ferdinand, who afterwards became king of Aragon, administered the government with credit. John married Maria, daughter of his uncle, the regent, and thus the thrones of Castile and Aragon were closely allied. Ferdinand died in the year 1416, and was succeeded by

ALPHONSO V., surnamed "The Magnanimous," the greater part of whose reign was occupied by attempts to gain Naples.

GENERAL REVIEW OF  
LITERATURE, RELIGION, AND ART, DURING  
THE MIDDLE AGES.

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THE thousand years which we are accustomed to call "The Middle Ages" are generally described as "Dark;" but we must remember that the shadows grow fainter as we advance, and that there were not wanting tokens of the coming day.

We must not altogether ascribe the ruin of literature to the barbarian destroyers of the Roman empire. An irretrievable decay had long been apparent, and from the age of the Antonines the downfall of literature was rapid. The Christian Church unfortunately contributed to this decline; the Council of Carthage (A.D. 398) prohibited the reading of secular books by bishops, and all physical science was held in avowed contempt.

The occupation of Western Europe by the Goths consummated the ruin of intellectual pursuits. The great Theodoric could not write his own name, and would not encourage any schools. Latin soon ceased to be a living language, and the whole treasury of knowledge was locked up from the eyes of the people. Men of letters there were none. Perhaps Duns Scotus and Pope Silvester II. were the only two who deserved the name up to the middle of the eleventh century.

We cannot wonder that superstition followed in the wake of ignorance; the rapid spread of monasteries was also deeply injurious to general morals; and a narrow theological bigotry became the leading feature of the Church—a bigotry to which we owe the stakes and scaffolds of the Inquisition.

The crusades, which were an outgrowth of the superstitious enthusiasm of the age, were very pernicious to morality: they were conducted with injustice and cruelty, and led to rapine and ferocity.

While the rich devoted themselves to the pleasures of the chase, when not actually engaged in warfare, the poor were in a state of miserable servitude, and the condition of trade was hardly preferable to that of agriculture.

We may date from the close of the eleventh century the general dawning of improvement as regards the social, religious, and intellectual condition of Europe. In England commercial progress was slow in comparison with that of Flanders, which was a market for the traders of all the world. The Hanseatic League greatly facilitated the growth of manufactures; and from about the middle of the fourteenth century we find continual evidence of a rapid increase in wealth.

In Southern Europe, especially, commerce became splendid and extensive, partly owing to the introduction of silk (A.D. 1148), which gave the earliest impulse to the industry of Italy. There was, however, great poverty and backwardness in civil architecture, and the refinements of life: and yet we know that architecture is the principal boast of the Middle Ages. It



was the favorite employment of ecclesiastical wealth to erect cathedral and conventual churches; and it is interesting to notice how the seeds of genius began to bud, as soon as the sunshine of encouragement favored their development. By the middle of the fourteenth century Gothic architecture had reached perfection in England; but the cathedrals of Cologne and Milan belong in reality to the fifteenth.

A gradual improvement in agriculture may be traced, and this we must in the main attribute to the monks, who brought under cultivation whole districts, which would probably have otherwise remained waste and barren.

Among the causes of moral improvement during the latter part of the Middle Ages we may mention—a more regular administration of justice according to fixed laws, and a more effective police. Nor must we overlook the fact, that as soon as men began to examine into, and discuss the religious systems around them, light broke in, and the surrounding darkness was revealed. Hence the rise of the Waldenses, the Albigenses, the Lollards, who endured severe persecutions with a sincerity and a firmness which commands respect and admiration.

Another source of moral discipline may be traced in the institution of chivalry, whose business it was to animate and cherish the principle of *honour*. Woman began to obtain an ascendancy, and exercise an influence which could not fail to refine the manners of an age hitherto rude and unpolished. Three virtues were essential to the character of a knight—loyalty, courtesy, and munificence; and thus the natural

roughness of war was softened down, and the prevention or redress of injuries became incumbent on every true soldier.

About the latter part of the eleventh century a greater ardour for intellectual pursuits began to show itself in Europe, which in the twelfth broke out into a flame. The university of Paris made rapid advances under the leadership of Abelard, who did all he could to awaken men from their slumbers. Twenty cardinals and fifty bishops were once among his hearers. Oxford is equally indebted to our king Alfred, and in the year 1201 contained three thousand scholars. Bologna's university may lay claim to a still higher antiquity, and numbered during the thirteenth century thirty thousand scholars.

Turning to poetry, Dante must be named among the very few who have created the national poetry of their country. His appearance made an epoch in the intellectual history of modern nations, and his writings gave a general impulse to the human mind. Italy can also boast of a Petrarch during the Middle Ages; and he, with Dante and Chaucer, form a triumvirate who stand alone among the poets. The invention of printing about the year 1450 was coincident with the golden morning of literature, and was among the many causes to which we may trace the dispersion of surrounding darkness.

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